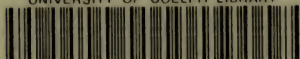


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PREFACE

TO THE TWENTY-EIGHTH EDITION.

HISTORICAL abridgments are deservedly considered as highly useful for conveying a knowledge of important facts respecting the origin and progress of nations ; and hence they have been generally introduced into the system of modern education. Some of these have met with a considerable share of public approbation ; and of this work twenty-seven large impressions sufficiently testify that it has been hitherto deemed worthy of encouragement. With a view to increase its utility, various improvements have been successively made, which, it is hoped, will be found well adapted to communicate historical information. The paragraphs in each chapter and section are numerically marked in such a manner as to correspond with the exercises, which have been so much enlarged as to comprehend all the principal incidents mentioned in the history.

An important improvement to which the later editions lay claim, consists in the re-composing of the more ancient part of the narrative, which, in some places, was not altogether free from error, both in respect to facts and dates. This office was performed by a distinguished writer, whose works have thrown great light on the annals of Scotland. A similar process was adopted with regard to the remainder of the volume, a large portion of which was written anew, and the

whole carefully corrected. Several years having passed since the work was brought down to the accession of Queen Victoria, a history of the present reign has now been added. Much attention has been paid to the important events connected with the civil and ecclesiastical history of Scotland, and it is hoped that the continuation may be found both accurate and impartial.

With regard to the chapter on the British Constitution, the Publishers beg to refer to the authorities quoted, as a satisfactory evidence that the latest and most esteemed works have been referred to, and that the acts of the legislature have been themselves consulted wherever they illustrate the subject. No authorities have been adopted at second hand, and illustrations have been in many instances derived from incidents of a later date than any work which treats on the subject of the Constitution.

These improvements, it is hoped, will be considered both valuable in themselves, and well calculated to facilitate the study of Scottish history. The Publishers, therefore, trust that this edition, which, though greatly enlarged, is not enhanced in price, will be deemed worthy of an additional share of that approbation which the work has hitherto received.

December 1849.

GENEALOGICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

THE SOVEREIGNS OF SCOTLAND,

FROM KENNETH II. TO VICTORIA.

Name.	Genealogy.	Began to Reign.	Duration of Reign.	
			Yrs.	Months
Kenneth II. or MacAlpin	Son of Alpin	843	16	
Donald III. or MacAlpin	Son of Alpin	859	4	
Constantin II.	Son of Kenneth II.	863	18	
Aodh	Son of Kenneth II.	881	1	
Eocha and } Gryg. }	Grandson of Kenneth II. } Son of Dungal. }	882	11	
Donald IV.	Son of Constantin II.	893	11	
Constantin III.	Son of Aodh	904	40	
Malcolm I.	Son of Donald IV.	944	9	
Indulf	Son of Constantin III.	953	8	
Duf.	Son of Malcolm I.	961	4	6
Culen	Son of Indulf.	965	4	6
Kenneth III.	Son of Malcolm I.	970	24	
Constantin IV.	Son of Culen.	994	1	6
Kenneth IV.	Son of Duf.	995	8	
Malcolm II.	Son of Kenneth III.	1003	30	
Duncan	Grandson of Malcolm II.	1033	6	
Macbeth	Son of Finlegh	1039	17	
Lulach	Son of Gilcolmgain.	1056, Dec.	0	3
Malcolm III. (<i>Cean-</i> <i>mohr</i>)	Son of Duncan	1057, April	36	7
Donald (<i>Bane</i>)	Son of Duncan	1093, Nov.	13	0
Duncan II.	Son of Malcolm III.	1094, May	1	6
Donald <i>Bane</i> (restored)	Son of Duncan	1095, Nov.	1	10
Edgar	Son of Malcolm.	1097, Sept.	9	4
Alexander I.	Son of Malcolm.	1107, Jan.	8	17
David I.	Son of Malcolm.	1124, April	27	29
Malcolm IV. (<i>The</i> <i>Maiden</i>)	Grandson of David I.	1153, May	24	12
William I. (<i>The Lion</i>)...	Grandson of David I.	1165, Dec.	9	49
Alexander II.	Son of William.	1214, Dec.	4	34
Alexander III.	Son of Alexander II.	1249, July	8	36
Margaret (<i>The Maiden</i> <i>of Norway</i>)	Granddaughter of Alex- ander III.	1286, March	19	4
Interregnum		1290, Sept.		2
John (Baliol)	Great-great-great-grand- son of David I.	1292, Nov.	17	3
Interregnum		1296, July 7-10		9
Robert I. (Bruce)	Great-great-great-great- grandson of David I.	1306, March	27	23
David II.	Son of Robert I.	1329, June	7	41

GENEALOGICAL AND CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE CONTINUED.

Name.	Genealogy.	Began to Reign.	Duration of Reign.	
			Yrs.	Months.
Robert II. (Stuart)	Grandson of Robert I....	1371, Feb.	22	19
Robert III.....	Son of Robert II.....	1390, April	19	16
James I.....	Son of Robert III.....	1406, April	4	30
James II.....	Son of James I.....	1437, Feb.	20	23
James III.....	Son of James II.....	1460, Aug.	3	27
James IV.....	Son of James III.....	1488, June	11	25
James V.....	Son of James IV.....	1513, Sept.	9	29
Mary.....	Daughter of James V....	1542, Dec.	16	24
James VI.....	Son of Mary.....	1567, July	29	57
Ascended the throne of England.....		1603, March	24	
Charles I.....	Son of James VI.....	1625, March	27	23
Charles II.....	Son of Charles I.....	1649, Jan.	30	36
James VII.....	Son of Charles I.....	1685, Feb.	6	4
William II. }	Son-in-law of James VII.....	1689, April	11	12
Mary II..... }	Daughter of James VII. }			
Anne.....	Daughter of James VII..	1702, March	8	12
Union with England..		1707, May	1	
George I.....	Descendant of James VI.	1714, Aug.	1	12
George II.....	Son of George I.....	1727, June	11	33
George III.....	Grandson of George II..	1760, Oct.	25	59
George IV.....	Son of George III.....	1820, Jan.	29	10
William IV.....	Son of George III.....	1830, June	26	7
Victoria	Granddaughter of Geo. III.	1837, June	20	

THE
HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

PERIOD I.

SECTION I.

1. THE history of Scotland may with propriety be divided into six periods: The first extending from the Roman invasion to the reign of Kenneth II. surnamed Macalpin—the second, from the union of the Scots and the Picts under that monarch to the death of Alexander III.—the third, from his demise to the death of James V.—the fourth, from that event to the accession of his grandson James VI. to the throne of England—the fifth, from the union of the crowns under the latter prince to the death of George II.—and the sixth, from that epoch down to the present time.

2. The history of the first period is so uncertain that we shall pass over it with a very brief notice. In the second, truth begins to dawn, feebly at first, but gradually becomes more distinct. The relation of facts in the third may be depended on, as they are chiefly taken from records still preserved in England, wherein the causes and effects of events are explained; the manners of the age described; the characters of the actors displayed; and the changes in the form of government pointed out. At this era every Scotsman should begin, not only to read, but to study with minute attention the history of his country.

3. The fourth period is remarkable for the importance of North Britain in the political state of Europe; the connexion of its affairs with those of other nations; and its influence on their general proceedings. The prominent features of the fifth interval are, the rise and establishment of the Presbyterian form of Church government; the revolution in 1688; the union of Scotland and England; and the rebellions of 1715 and 1745. The sixth period includes the American war; the French re-

volution, with the long and eventful struggle which followed; the union of Great Britain and Ireland; and the improvements since made in the internal condition of the country.

EXERCISES.

1. Into how many periods may the history of Scotland be divided?
2. What is to be remarked of the second period? What is said of the third? What periods should be most studied?
3. What is the character of the fourth period? Describe the fifth and sixth periods.

SECTION II.

i. THE most ancient name of the northern part of Britain called Scotland appears to have been *Albyn*, an appellation upon the etymology of which antiquaries have long been divided in their opinions. The most probable conjecture seems to be that which brings it from *Al*, a rock, and *Ben*, or *Byn*, a hill, both Gaelic roots, signifying the country of rocks and hills. It is difficult to arrive at historical certainty upon a subject so remote and obscure as the origin of ancient nations; and the inquiry fortunately is rather curious than useful. There appears, however, solid ground for believing that the regions both of South and North Britain were peopled by emigrants from Gaul: the ancient Gauls, the ancient Britons, and the ancient Scots, being the same people, at least tribes from the same stock, and all of them belonging to the great race of the Celts. But into the history of their migrations, upon which many volumes of controversy have been written, it is unnecessary to enter.

2. With the arrival of Cæsar in Britain (B. c. 55), history begins to have its first sure foundation; and during the expedition of Agricola (A. D. 80), the light which is thrown on ancient Scotland becomes gradually more clear and vivid. Julius describes the whole island at the time he landed as inhabited by two nations; the inland parts by those whom he terms the native occupants or aborigines; the maritime coasts by the Belgic Gauls. The former painted themselves of a bluish colour to increase the terror of their appearance; they were not seen by Cæsar, but are described by him agreeably to the accounts he had received from the Belgic Gauls; and there appears little doubt that they were of the same race as the Caledonians.

3. The description of the Britons, under which designation are included the inhabitants of the whole island, by Dion Cassius, a Roman historian, who wrote about the year 230, is characteristic. "Of this people," says he, "there are two great

nations, the Caledonians and Mæataë, for the names of the rest may be referred, for the most part, to these. The Mæataë dwell near the wall which divides the island into two parts, (the rampart of Antonine, extending from the Forth to the Clyde, built about the year 140); and beyond them are the Caledonians. Both inhabit rugged and arid mountains, and desert plains abounding in marshes. They have neither castles nor cities; nor do they till the ground, but live by their flocks, by hunting, and on the fruits of trees. Fish, of which there is great profusion, they never taste. They go naked without covering their feet, and dwell in tents. They use their wives in common, and bring up their children in common. Their form of government is for the most part popular. They are addicted to plunder, make war in chariots, and have small but fleet horses. Their infantry are very swift of foot, and firm in sustaining an assault. Their arms consist of a shield and short spear, to the lower part of which is affixed an apple of brass, the sound of which, when shaken, they employ to terrify their enemies; they carry, likewise, short daggers."

4. Such, from Dion Cassius, is the general description of the Northern Britons; but in the account given by Tacitus of the actions of his father-in-law Cnæus Julius Agricola, we are introduced to a nearer view of the Caledonians. "The third year of the expedition," says that author, in his life of this commander, "discovered new nations, whose territories were laid waste as far as the Firth of Tay. The sudden terror impressed upon the enemy by this invasion prevented them from attacking the army, although it was much worn out by violent storms. Time had been gained likewise for erecting forts, and it was observed by skilful judges that no former general had so wisely chosen sites for his strongholds; and that no station fortified by Agricola had ever fallen into the hands of the barbarians, whether by assault, by capitulation, or by the desertion of its garrison." The imperial lieutenant is understood to have employed his fourth summer in the settlement of his new conquests, and in the erection of a chain of defences across the narrow isthmus formed by the estuaries of the Forth and the Clyde. In his fifth campaign he crossed the latter river, and attacking the barbarous tribes which at that time inhabited Galloway, reduced them to a partial subjection, planting garrisons in the regions opposite to Ireland. But the greatest difficulties and successes belong to his sixth campaign. Having assembled a numerous army, and equipped a powerful fleet for the purpose of exploring the remoter and still unknown parts

of the island, this enterprising leader passed the Firth of Forth, and, after various triumphs, defeated the Caledonian chief Galgacus, in an obstinate and sanguinary battle, which was fought (A. D. 84), at a spot distinguished by the name of Mons Grampius, supposed to be on the south-eastern verge of the Grampian mountains. On this occasion the natives were armed with huge swords, and small shields or targets, which they employed skilfully in warding off javelins. The conflict lasted till night; ten thousand Caledonians being slain, and only three hundred and forty Romans.

5. Such is the account of Tacitus; but there seems sufficient ground for concluding that the loss of Agricola was much greater than his partial biographer is willing to admit. Immediately after this victory, in which the Caledonians are represented as having been almost entirely cut to pieces, he retreated by slow marches into the country of the Horestii (probably Angus and Fife), and placed his army in winter-quarters. Being recalled by Domitian, he commanded the admiral of his fleet to sail round the island; upon which he returned to Rome, never again to visit the scenes of his conquests (A. D. 85).

EXERCISES.

1. What was the most ancient name of Scotland? From what two words is that name derived? From what quarter were the regions of South and North Britain first peopled? To what great race did these first emigrants belong?

2. When Julius Cæsar landed, how many nations did he find in Britain? When did Agricola invade Scotland?

3. How does Dion Cassius describe the ancient Britons?

4. How does Tacitus describe the Caledonians? What was the scene of Agricola's third campaign? Across what isthmus did he erect a chain of forts or defences? What was the scene of his fifth campaign, and what was his success? In what district did he commence his sixth campaign? Where was Agricola encountered by Galgacus?

5. When did Agricola leave Britain? Did he ever return?

SECTION III.

1. PURSUING the meagre annals which have been left of those times, we find that the natives, profiting by the neglect of their enemy, fiercely assaulted the forts; regained the country they had lost; and compelled the Romans to contract the limits of their dominion. At length Adrian ascended the imperial throne, a remarkable man, whose wise policy it was to visit in person the remotest provinces of his vast empire. Accordingly (A. D. 120), he came to Britain, and having, by actual observation, ascertained the condition of the country, he deemed it proper to divide the Romanized Britons from the fiercer tribes of the Caledonians by a wall or strong rampart, which

appears to have stretched between the Solway Firth and the mouth of the river Tyne. It was reserved, however, for Lollius Urbicus (A. D. 140 to A. D. 161), the lieutenant of the Emperor Antoninus, who next occupied the throne, to subjugate once more that portion of country which lay beyond the wall of Adrian. He extended the Roman dominion even to the shores of the Moray Firth, constituting the region bounded by that estuary on the north and by the Forth on the south a distinct province called Vespasiana. Yet so precarious were his conquests, that he considered it prudent to construct another wall between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, on the same line where Agricola had originally established his forts.

2. During the reign of Antoninus the efforts of the northern tribes to regain their country appear to have been constant, though often unsuccessful; but under the Emperor Commodus the province of Vespasiana was abandoned by the Romans (A. D. 170), and the Caledonians, bursting through the barrier which had been raised by Lollius Urbicus, penetrated into the provinces lying beyond the wall of Adrian. Under Pertinax and Clodius Albinus, by whom the imperial throne was successively occupied, the Northern Britons continued their incursions; harassing the provinces of the Romanized Britons with incessant hostilities, and compelling them to purchase peace by large sums of money. It did not belong to the temper of Severus, who soon afterwards assumed the purple, to submit to so ignominious a state of things; and therefore, although beginning to feel the infirmities of age, he carried his arms into Britain; wrested from the Caledonians the territories which they had ravaged; and overran the country as far as the Moray Firth, with the loss, however, of 30,000 troops (A. D. 209-210). Yet the precaution which he adopted, of building a stone wall twelve feet high and eight thick, nearly in the same line as the turf rampart of Adrian, between the Solway and the mouth of the Tyne, appears to indicate his knowledge of the turbulent spirit of the barbarians.

3. For nearly a century after the death of this monarch (in A. D. 211) the Roman historians give us little information respecting the affairs of Britain. In A. D. 306 the Caledonians invaded the southern provinces, but were repulsed by the Emperor Constantius. The wall between the Forth and the Clyde was repaired and strengthened by Theodosius (A. D. 368-369), and by Stilicho about thirty years thereafter.

4. It is about this period that the Roman writers, for the first time, begin to speak of the Picts and Scots as the principal opponents of the Roman power in the northern parts

of the island. In the year 296 we find the earliest mention of a people in Caledonia called the Picti or Picts. The passage occurs in a laudatory oration pronounced by Eumenius, a professor of rhetoric, who says, "the nation which Cæsar attacked was then rude; and the Britons, accustomed only to the Picts, and Irish invaders, then half naked, easily yielded to the Roman arms and standards." "What these new people were," says Ritson, "whence they came, and why they are so called, are questions which, although frequently discussed, have never yet been satisfactorily decided." It is now almost universally admitted that these Picts were the ancient Caledonians under a new name; but whether they were of Celtic or of Gothic descent is still matter of dispute. The weight of authority, however, seems to support the former hypothesis that they were a Celtic people, and that the name of Picts was given them by the Romans, either from the latinized corruption of the Gaelic word *peachd* or *feachd*, signifying an army, or from their custom of painting their bodies,—a practice they continued to observe after it was laid aside by the inhabitants southward of the wall of Antonine.

5. Equal obscurity still hangs over the original country of the Scots or Scoti. The northern people no sooner began to imbibe some knowledge of the Greek and Roman literature, than they attempted to deduce their pedigrees from the most celebrated nations of antiquity,—the Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Trojans. Finding that the Romans traced their lineage to these last, some of the barbarous tribes, unwilling to concede to that great people a remoter origin than their own, devised founders for themselves, whose actions they detailed with a fabulous and absurd minuteness. Nor were the ancient historians of Scotland free from this weakness. They had the ingenuity to identify their ancestors, not indeed with the Trojans, but with the Greeks and the Egyptians; bringing them from Egypt at the time of Moses, and assigning to them as their leader Gathelus, son of Neolus, king of Greece. Without, however, entering into the various controversies regarding their extraction, it is sufficient for our purpose to observe, that there seems good reason to believe they emigrated from Ireland into North Britain, probably about the year 260; and that, having been expelled in the middle of the fifth century, they again returned in 503 in greater numbers, and effected a permanent settlement on the western coast.

6. The Romans withdrew their troops, and finally abandoned the island, about A. D. 446, almost 500 years after the first invasion by Julius Cæsar. Nearly at the same period, Britain

was visited by a formidable enemy in the Saxons, a German people of Gothic origin, who were at first invited by the distressed Britons as auxiliaries, and afterwards took possession of the soil which had been protected by their valour. They were followed by numerous swarms of their countrymen, who, during a century of perpetual conflict and encroachment, successively occupied the eastern and southern portions of the island.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the success of the Britons against the Romans? When the Emperor Adrian succeeded, what was his policy? What was the extent of Adrian's wall? Who was Lollius Urbicus? What were his actions in Britain? What was the extent and course of the wall built by Lollius Urbicus?

2. What was the success of the Northern Britons under the Emperor Commodus? At what time did these successes take place? What was their success under Pertinax and Clodius Albinus? What was the policy of Severus with regard to North Britain? When was the wall of Severus built? What was its extent?

3. When did Severus die? For nearly a century after his death, do the Roman historians give us much information of Britain? By whom were the Caledonians repulsed in their invasion of the southern provinces?

4. When do the Roman writers first mention the Picts and Scots as their principal opponents? When are the Picts first mentioned in history as a people in North Britain? Is it known who these Picts were? Are learned men agreed on the subject?

5. Is the parent country of the Scots ascertained? When did they settle in Scotland?

6. When did the Romans finally abandon Britain? When did the Saxons first visit it? What was their origin?

SECTION IV.

1. IN the seventh century we find the island of Great Britain divided amongst four distinct nations.—1st, The ancient Britons, whose territories, at this time, were confined to Cornwall, Wales, Cumbria, and Strathclyde; by which last is meant the shires of Lanark, Renfrew, Peebles, Selkirk, and parts of the counties of Roxburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton.—2d, The Saxons, occupying the greater part of England, and also the eastern coast of Scotland as far as to the Firth of Forth.—3d, The Picts, whose dominions reached from the wall of Antonine to the northern extremity of Caithness.—4th, The Scots, whose territories seem to have been confined to Argyllshire and the adjacent islands.

2. These nations were divided into subordinate tribes, who seem occasionally to have been united under a single leader. The Britons were separated into different governments; the Saxons into principalities, which, from their supposed number of seven, were commonly called the Heptarchy; the Scots branched out into the clans of Kintyre, Argyll, and Lorn;

whilst the Picts were parted into two states, of whose history, however, few particulars are known with certainty.

3. Much controversy has been maintained regarding the exact period when the Scots in Ireland were converted to Christianity, though no doubt remains that it must have taken place before the middle of the fifth century, as Pope Celestine, in A. D. 431, sent Palladius to the Irish Scots, then Christians, to be their first bishop. In A. D. 563, St Columba left Ireland, his native country, and having fixed his abode in Iona or Icolmkill, one of the Hebrides lying westward of Mull, converted the northern Picts to the religion of the gospel.

4. Amongst all ancient nations the monarchical seems to have been the original form of government. Each British tribe acknowledged an hereditary prince; the Picts obeyed a line of kings; and the Scots recognised the sway of a monarch whose crown was confined to the lineage of their first rulers. But by the prevalence of a custom peculiar to the Gaelic tribes, called the law of tanistry, the succession was frequently interrupted, and the nearest relative of full age was named heir-apparent to the reigning sovereign. Originally the eldest son of the king was appointed tanist, if grown to mature years and able to discharge the hazardous functions of that office; but in progress of time the nearest relation appears to have been preferred to the direct heir.

5. The contentions between the Picts and the Scots occupied nearly three centuries of tumultuous warfare; but at length Kenneth II., king of the latter people, asserted, in right of his grandmother, his claim to the Pictish throne, and in A. D. 843 succeeded in uniting the two nations under his sole government. About fifteen years after, Egbert, the energetic sovereign of Wessex, brought under his subjection the several Saxon kingdoms, and blended them into one great monarchy bearing the name of England.

EXERCISES.

1. In the seventh century how many nations occupied Great Britain?
2. Into what tribes were these nations divided? What was the heptarchy? Into what clans were the Scots subdivided? Into how many states were the Picts divided?
3. When were the Scots converted to Christianity? When were the northern Picts converted? By whom?
4. What was the most prevalent form of government amongst ancient nations? What was the law of tanistry?
5. What period was occupied by the contentions of the Picts and Scots? By whom were these two nations united? When did this event happen?

PERIOD II.

SECTION I.

1. ABOUT this period the Scottish monarchs were chiefly employed in repelling the invasions of the Danish pirates, who infested their coasts; and it was only during the intervals of repose from foreign aggression, that they found time to extend their power and consolidate their dominions. Against those maritime assailants the sovereigns of Scotland and England made common cause; and both also appear to have been equally hostile to the original British tribes, who still kept possession of a considerable portion of the island. In A. D. 945, Edmund reduced under his power the kingdom of Cumbria, comprising the valuable counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland; slew its last British prince; and afterwards ceded the district to Malcolm I. An equally important event signalized the reign of Kenneth III., the son and successor of the latter monarch, who, in A. D. 975, conquered the country of the Strathclyde Britons, and expelling its last sovereign, Dunwallon, annexed it to his dominions.

2. This same ruler, Kenneth III., attempted to abolish for ever the law of tanistry; but after his death the nobles revived it, and in consequence of the contentions arising for the possession of the kingdom, between Malcom II., son of Kenneth, and Constantin the Tanist, the former retained only the sovereignty of Cumbria and Strathclyde,—provinces which were regulated by Saxon and British customs. Malcolm, however, was a prince of great energy and military talent, and having, after a sanguinary struggle, overpowered his rivals, ascended the Scottish throne in 1003. In 1020, he obtained from Eadulf, the Saxon earl of Northumberland, a cession of Lothian, which he united to his hereditary dominions; and he maintained the integrity of his land against the attacks of the Danes and the hostility of the great Canute. It has been justly observed, that the extent of this prince's territories, and the stability of his power, which at his death he left unimpaired, seem to entitle him to be accounted the first king of Scotland in its modern acceptation.

3. On the death of Malcolm II., which took place in 1033, he was succeeded by his grandson Duncan, the son of his daughter Bethoc, who had married a Saxon earl. Previous to his accession to the throne this young prince had governed the district of Cumberland. Macbeth, a powerful noble, pretended to have a legitimate title to the crown, and by this

daring and unscrupulous competitor Duncan was slain in 1039, leaving at his death two sons, Malcolm, surnamed Ceanmohr or Great Head, and Donald, surnamed Bane, the white or fair complexioned.

4. Ceanmohr, although dispossessed of his kingdom, was allowed to retain the principality of Cumberland, and having assembled an army, with the assistance of Siward, earl of Northumberland, a near relative of his mother, he invaded Scotland, and compelled Macbeth to seek an asylum in the fastnesses of the north, where he was soon afterwards killed (1056). The step-son of this tyrant, named Lulach or the Simple, usurped the sceptre; but, after a brief reign of three months, he was defeated and slain at Essie in Strathbogie. On the 25th April 1057, Malcolm III. was crowned at Scone; and with his reign a new era commences in our history. He was attached to the Saxon people by birth, habit, education, and gratitude; and to these powerful motives another tie was added about the year 1068, by his marriage with Margaret, a princess of the royal blood of England. From this time the Saxon nobles, expelled by William, duke of Normandy, who had conquered that kingdom in 1066, found a friendly retreat in the north. They received from his majesty large grants of land; their language, which was already that of Malcolm and his queen, became the language of the court, and gradually superseded the speech of the Gaels, who were once more confined to their mountains and ceased to be the predominant people.

5. Malcolm is renowned as a prince of great ability and energy. He maintained the independence of his kingdom against the attacks of William the Conqueror and his son Rufus; and, during a period of twenty-seven years, supported the contest with resources far inferior to those of his opponents. At length, in his war against the latter sovereign, he fell, along with his eldest son, in a skirmish before the walls of Alnwick Castle, A. D. 1093.

6. The death of Malcolm III. appears to have been the signal for the last great effort made by the Gaelic Scots to revive the ancient rule of succession, or the law of tanistry. Donald Bane, his brother, was called to the throne, in exclusion of the late monarch's sons, who, with most of the English settlers, were expelled the kingdom. But the contest between two such races as the Celtic and the Saxon was unequal and of very short duration. Donald was expelled by Duncan, an illegitimate son of Ceanmohr; and he, after a few brief months of royalty, was himself cut off near Bervie by Malpeder, *Maormor* or earl of the Mearns, who

again seated the usurper upon the throne, and banished all foreigners from the court. In 1097, however, Edgar Atheling, uncle of the true heir, invaded Scotland, overcame Donald, and placed Edgar, the son of Malcolm, upon the throne. The superior power of the Saxons and Normans thus triumphed over the utmost efforts of the Gaelic chiefs to reduce the country under their sole dominion.

7. Edgar, a peaceful and amiable sovereign, is said in many things to have resembled Edward the Confessor. His administration was mild and beneficent. He died in 1107, and was succeeded by his brother Alexander I.,—a prince of a very different temper, able, fearless, energetic, and inflexible in his purposes. These qualities were shown in his determination that the Scottish Church should acknowledge no subserviency to the see of Canterbury or of York, both of which claimed the right of consecrating the bishops of St Andrews. These rival claims were steadily and successfully resisted by the king, whose character is thus described by a contemporary:—"He was humble and courteous to the clergy, but to the rest of his subjects terrible beyond measure. High-spirited, ever endeavouring to accomplish things beyond his power, not ignorant of letters, zealous in establishing churches, liberal to profusion, and taking delight in the offices of charity to the poor." He is traditionally distinguished as Alexander the Fierce. He died in 1124.

8. David, the youngest son of Malcolm Ceanmohr, succeeded to the Scottish throne on the death of Alexander. He passed his youth at the court of Henry I., who had married his sister Matilda; and he himself had espoused a lady of the same name, the daughter of the Earl of Northumberland. On the demise of Henry I., when Stephen seized the English sceptre, David supported the rights of Matilda, his niece, and invading England, took possession of the whole country to the north of Durham, constraining the several barons to swear fealty to this princess (1135). After a temporary pacification he retired; but again leading an army beyond the Tweed, he was defeated at Cutton Moor, near Northallerton, in the famous Battle of the Standard, August 22, 1138. In 1139, he concluded a treaty with Stephen, who ceded to Henry, prince of Scotland, David's eldest son, the whole earldom of Northumberland.

9. Having obtained a respite from war, the pious monarch sedulously devoted himself to the arts of peace. During his administration towns were established, public buildings erected, and agriculture, commerce, and manufactures promoted throughout the kingdom. His domestic affections, however,

and the happiness of the country, were deeply wounded by the death of Henry (1152); but in order to prevent any disturbance from a disputed succession, he sent Malcolm, the eldest son of the deceased prince, in a solemn progress through his dominions, and proclaimed him, with the universal consent of the country, heir to the throne. It is the judgment of Buchanan, who was not disposed to favour royalty, that in the reign of David I. a more perfect example of a good king is to be found, than in all the theories of the learned and ingenious. His extraordinary munificence in the endowment of religious houses has been objected to him as a fault or weakness; and James I. was wont to say, in allusion to the wealth thus expended, that he was a sore saint to the crown. Yet, in those dark days of ignorance and barbarity, it is to be recollected that monasteries had their advantages. In them the lamp of knowledge continued to burn, however dimly. Within their cloisters alone education was to be found, and men of business were formed for the state; whilst the monks were the only proficients in agriculture, mechanics, gardening, and architecture. This excellent prince died on the 24th May 1153, in the seventy-third year of his age.

EXERCISES.

1. At the commencement of this period, what was the principal employment of the Scottish monarchs? Who gave Cumberland to Malcolm I.? What was the fate of its last British prince? Who succeeded Malcolm I.? Who conquered the country of the Strathclyde Britons?

2. Who attempted to abolish the law of tanistry? Who was Malcolm II.? When did he succeed to the Scottish throne? When was Lothian united to his dominions? From whom did he obtain this district? From the greatness of his power and the extent of his dominions, what title does he deserve to have conferred on him?

3. When did Malcolm II. die? Who succeeded him? Who assassinated Duncan? When did this happen? What sons were left by Duncan?

4. Who slew Macbeth? When was he slain? By whose assistance did Malcolm recover his kingdom? When and where was he crowned? What were the effects of his accession? Whom did he marry? What people did he encourage to settle in Scotland? What was now the language of the Scottish court? What became of the Gaelic Scots?

5. Against what princes did Malcolm Ceanmohr maintain the independence of his kingdom? How long did he maintain it? When and where was he slain? Whom was he fighting against?

6. What steps were taken by the Gaelic Scots on the death of Malcolm Ceanmohr? Whom did they call to the throne? Who expelled Donald? Who slew Duncan? Who succeeded Duncan? When did Edgar Atheling invade Scotland? Whom did he place on the throne?

7. What was the character of Edgar? Whom did he resemble in his dispositions? When did he die? By whom was he succeeded? What was the character of Alexander I.? How did he exhibit his firmness? By what name is he traditionally known? When did he die?

8. Who succeeded Alexander? Where did David I. pass his youth? Whom did he marry? When Stephen usurped the English throne, whose rights did David support? When did he invade England? Where was he defeated? When did he conclude peace? What district did Stephen give to Prince Henry of Scotland?

9. How did David employ himself in peace? When did Prince Henry die? Whom did David proclaim his successor? What was David's character? When did he die?

SECTION II.

1. DAVID was succeeded on the throne by his grandson, Malcolm IV., surnamed the Maiden, still in the twelfth year of his age. The commencement of his reign was disturbed by a civil insurrection raised by Somerled, Lord of the Isles, which was at length happily subdued; but soon after, Henry II. of England, resolving to profit by his youth and inexperience, induced him to part with his possessions in the northern counties in exchange for the Honour of Huntingdon (1157). This agreement occasioned universal discontent; and when their juvenile king, ambitious of distinction, passed over to France to fight under the English banners, the nobles sent an embassy, reproaching him with forgetfulness of his dignity as an independent sovereign. "We will not," said they, "have Henry to rule over us." From this foreign and useless service he was soon recalled by a formidable rebellion in Galloway. Under this term was comprehended, in those remote times, not only the district which now bears that name, but the stewartry of Kirkcudbright and the greater part of Ayrshire. Acknowledging merely a feudatory dependence on Scotland, it was ruled by its own princes and its own laws; and so fierce and powerful were its inhabitants, that Malcolm was repulsed with loss, after having twice led an army against them. In the third attempt, however, he succeeded; overcame Fergus, the lord of the district; and brought its savage chieftains under his obedience (1160).

2. A rebellion soon after broke out in Moray, and the king inflicted a signal vengeance on the malecontents. Entering the country with an overwhelming force, he dispossessed the inhabitants, scattered them over different parts of the kingdom, and planted new colonies in their stead (1161). In 1164, Somerled, Lord of the Isles, again invaded the royal domains. But Malcolm, no longer the youth whom he formerly despised, had succeeded in inspiring his subjects with confidence in his government and affection to his person; and the inhabitants of Renfrewshire, against whom the insurgent directed his first attack, having assembled in great force, defeated him with loss, slaying both him and his son Gillecolane. His majesty died at Jedburgh in the year 1165.

3. He was succeeded in the throne by his brother William, who was crowned 24th December 1165; and from his being

the first of the Scottish sovereigns upon whose seal the Lion Rampant was inscribed, it is probable he received the well-known appellation of William the Lion.

4. His first object was to obtain from Henry the Second the restitution of Northumberland. Being deluded by repeated promises, he at length invaded the territory of the English monarch, but was defeated and taken prisoner near Alwrick (1174). The victor carried him to Normandy, and imprisoned him in the castle of Falaise; where with a foolish precipitancy he consented to purchase his personal freedom at the expense of that which was not his to bestow,—the independence of his country. On the 8th December 1174, he became the liegeman or vassal of Henry for Scotland, as well as all his other possessions. But although the sovereignty of the kingdom was thus sacrificed, that of the church was preserved. The king and his barons agreed that the Scottish ecclesiastics should yield to the English such subjection *as they owed of right, and had been wont to pay in the days of Henry's predecessors*. The words, it is evident, are used so guardedly, that the question of independence is left undetermined. William, with his clergy and barons, did homage at York; but the bishops, positively refusing to acknowledge any subjection to their brethren of the south, were permitted to depart, though not until they had some altercation.

5. After having been for many ages torn by fierce and bloody dissensions, Galloway, in the year 1186, was reduced to a state of peace and good order. About the same time, the active monarch, with the assistance of Roland of that province, defeated Donald Bane, who had seized Ross and wasted Moray; and, to crown these successes, Richard I., who on the death of Henry II. in 1189 mounted the English throne, restored Scotland to its independence by renouncing for ever all claim of feudal superiority over that kingdom. The price which William paid to him for this renunciation was 10,000 merks sterling,—a sum supposed equal to £100,000 of our present money. For more than a century after this transaction there was neither dissension nor war between the two kingdoms,—a fortunate and happy period.

6. William, in 1186, had married Ermengarde, daughter of Richard, viscount of Beaumont. In 1198, the queen bore him a son, whom he named Alexander, and to whom, in 1201, the barons swore fealty. Towards the end of this reign disputes arose between John, king of England, and the Scottish government, which seemed likely to involve the two nations in war. But by the mediation of the barons on both

sides peace was restored in 1209, although the terms to which William consented were not generally agreeable to his people. He probably felt the approach of age, and was anxious to leave his kingdom in a peaceable condition to his infant successor. In 1211, he held a national council at Stirling, in which he demanded an aid, or pecuniary grant, for the purpose of paying the sum which, in accordance with the late convention, was due to England. The nobles contributed 10,000 merks, the boroughs 6000; but it is remarkable that the parliament did not presume to tax the ecclesiastical order.

7. Disturbances again arising in the north, occasioned by the invasion of an Irish adventurer named Guthred, his majesty, although aged and infirm, led an army against him; but this disturber of the public peace having been betrayed by his followers, was put to death by William Comyn, justiciary of the realm. The king died in the following year, 1214, at Stirling, after a spirited reign of nearly half a century. The statutes which he passed are preserved to this day, although interpolated in some places by more recent enactments or commentaries.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded David I.? What age was Malcolm IV. when he succeeded to the throne? Who raised an insurrection in the beginning of his reign? Under whose banners did Malcolm fight in France? What message did the Scottish nobles send to their king? What event recalled Malcolm to his dominions? What was then comprehended in the district named Galloway? What efforts did Malcolm employ to subdue it? When did he reduce it under his obedience?

2. What steps were taken by Malcolm when Moray broke into rebellion? When did this take place? By whom was Scotland invaded in 1164? What happened to Somerled and his son? When did Malcolm die?

3. Who succeeded Malcolm IV.? When was William crowned? Why was he named William the Lion?

4. With what object did William invade England? What was the issue of this invasion? Where and when was he defeated? Where was he imprisoned? By what means did he purchase his liberty? When did he become the liegeman of Henry? Was the independence of the Scottish church sacrificed with the independence of the kingdom?

5. When was Galloway reduced to a state of peace and good order? By whose assistance did William recover Ross? Who restored Scotland to its independence? How was this effected? What price was paid for the renunciation?

6. Whom did William marry? When was his son Alexander born? When did the Scottish barons swear fealty to this prince? By whose mediation were the disputes settled which had arisen between William and John, king of England?

7. By whom were disturbances again raised in the north? What steps did the king take? By whom was Guthred put to death? When did William die? Are the statutes of his reign preserved? Are they in their original state?

SECTION III.

1. WILLIAM was succeeded in the government by his eldest son Alexander II., a youth in his seventeenth year, who was crowned at Scone 10th December 1214. At this period the sceptre of England was still held by John, a weak unprincipled monarch; and his barons, who had taken arms against him, induced the northern king, by the promise of Northumberland and Carlisle, to espouse their cause. The English sovereign invaded Scotland and miserably wasted the country; whilst the other, retaliating, led an army across the borders, and carried fire and sword into the adjoining counties. The death of John, the interference of the Pope, and the desertion of the French king, Louis XI., who had joined the confederacy of Alexander and the barons, led soon afterwards to a pacification. The controversies between the Scottish prince and Henry III., who succeeded John, were in due time brought to an amicable conclusion; the Pontiff relieved him and his land from the interdict which had been pronounced against them; and Alexander, in the year 1221, married Joan, the sister of Henry.

2. The young king now devoted himself with unwearied assiduity to introduce among his people a love of order and respect for the laws. He subdued an insurrection in Argyll; he punished with extraordinary rigour the men of Caithness, who had assaulted their bishop and burnt him alive in his palace; he restored peace to the fertile province of Moray, which had been thrown into disorder by a Celtic chief named Gillescop; he maintained the authority of government in the wild districts of Galloway, repressing a formidable rebellion of the inhabitants; and he supported the dignity of his crown, while he preserved amity with England.

3. Alexander's queen having died in 1237, he espoused, two years afterwards, Mary, daughter of Ingelram de Couci, a great lord in Picardy. About the same time was born the eldest son of Henry III., afterwards Edward I.; and in 1241, the Scottish queen brought forth, at Roxburgh, an heir to the crown, who was named after his father. The remaining portion of this reign was spent by the king in a sedulous attention to the cares of state, and in upholding the independence of his throne, equally against the encroachments of foreign adversaries and of his own nobility. Some disturbances arising in Argyll, he led an army to repress the insurgents. Angus, the lord of that country, had been in the habit of doing homage to the King of Norway for certain islands which he held; but the native sovereign insisted that

the homage should be performed to himself. When engaged in this enterprise he was seized with a fever, and died on 8th July 1249, at Kerrera, a small island near the Sound of Mull, in the 51st year of his age and the 35th of his reign. He was one of the wisest and most spirited princes that ever reigned over Scotland, and his statutes which still remain amply support this character.

4. Alexander III., a boy in his eighth year, now succeeded to the throne, and was crowned at Scone, 13th July 1249. The usual oath was read in Latin, and explained in Norman French, the language of the court; but previous to the conclusion of the ceremony, a Highland sennachy, clothed in a scarlet mantle, stood up, and addressing the king in the Celtic tongue, deduced his descent from Fergus, the son of Erc, ruler of the Scots in Albyn.

5. Henry III. showed himself anxious to profit by the minority of Alexander. He had applied to the Pope before the coronation, representing the young king as his liegeman, and soliciting a papal mandate forbidding that he should be crowned without his permission. He also requested to have a grant of a tenth of the ecclesiastical revenues of Scotland. But Innocent IV. would agree to neither. The first assertion he considered as derogating from the honour of a sovereign prince; the second demand he rejected as unjust and unexampled.

6. In 1251, Alexander espoused at York, Margaret, the daughter of Henry. He at the same time performed homage to that monarch for his English possessions; but when the other craftily demanded the same obeisance for his native kingdom, he resolutely refused it.

7. From this period till he reached the age when he was fully capable of taking the government into his own hands, the history of the country presents little more than a series of civil contentions, in which various parties in the state attempted to obtain possession of his person, and thereby to secure for themselves the principal management of affairs. In these disturbances the English court, anxious to obtain the chief power in the councils of the northern kingdom, acted a conspicuous part. But, as the character of the prince gradually developed itself, it became evident that he would soon vindicate his invaded rights, and assert with vigour the independence of his crown.

8. In 1263, Haco, the ruler of Norway, invaded Scotland with a mighty fleet and a numerous army. His object was to establish a permanent dominion over the Western Isles, which had been wasted by the Earl of Ross and other piratical

chiefs, who, though they led a roving life upon the sea, professed to acknowledge the superiority of the royal power. Haco landed at Largs, in Cunningham, where he was attacked and completely defeated by the Scots, on the 2d October 1263; a disaster which was principally occasioned by a tempest, that shattered the Norwegian fleet and drove it ashore. The discomfited monarch sought a retreat in Orkney, where he died. Alexander compelled the governor of the Isle of Man to do him homage; chastised such chiefs in the Hebrides as had favoured the invasion of the Norsemen; and at length completed a negotiation with Magnus, the successor of Haco, by which, on the payment of 4000 merks sterling, and an annual rent of 100 merks, the Scandinavian king relinquished all right to the Western Isles. Orkney and Shetland were specially excepted; and it was provided that the inhabitants of the ceded islands should be regulated by Scottish laws; but if they objected, they were to be allowed to retire with their whole property (A. D. 1266).

9. The conduct of Alexander was highly praiseworthy in maintaining the independence of the church. When Fieschi, the papal legate, demanded six merks from every cathedral, and four merks from every parish, to defray the expenses of a visitation, he prohibited the contribution and appealed to Rome. When the same functionary, in a council which he held in the South, procured the enactment of several canons regarding Scotland, the representatives of the clergy refused all obedience to them. When Clement IV. required them to pay a tenth of their benefices to the King of England, as a help towards an intended crusade, Alexander and his clergy rejected the proposal, affirming that his own country would itself equip a sufficient number of soldiers. To prove that this was no false excuse, David, earl of Athole, Adam, earl of Carrick, and other barons, assumed the cross, most of whom died in the Holy Land.

10. Henry III., relying on the papal mandate, made an attempt to levy the tenths of the ecclesiastical benefices in the northern kingdom, which was opposed by the clergy, who appealed to the Pope. They afterwards assembled in a provincial council at Perth (1269), and enacted canons, which continued in force till the Reformation, and are still preserved.

11. In the year 1278, Alexander swore fealty in general terms to Edward I. The latter received it in this form, but declared that he did not renounce the claim of homage for the whole realm, whenever he or his heirs should think proper to renew it. Robert Bruce, earl of Carrick, was sent by his master to perform this ceremony; and it is important

to mark the words he was instructed to use. The expression of vassalage was limited to "the services due on account of the lands and tenements which the King of Scotland held of the King of England." These were the terms dictated by the former and accepted by the latter, and it is evident that they do not include the whole kingdom.

12. Alexander had been deprived of his queen by death, in 1274, and having only one son and a daughter, he was anxious that each of them should marry. Accordingly, Margaret espoused Eric, king of Norway, and the prince married the daughter of Guy, earl of Flanders; but two full years had not expired before he was bereft of both his children. The Queen of Norway died, leaving an only child, called by our historians the Maiden of Norway; and shortly afterwards the heir of the Scottish crown was suddenly cut off without issue. It was the first care of the bereaved monarch to hold a parliament at Scone, in which was determined the line of the succession; the nobles taking an oath to acknowledge the princess of Norway as their sovereign. Having resolved to marry a second time, he chose, for his wife, Joleta, daughter of the Count de Dreux; but he did not long survive this union, for, riding in a dark night between Burntisland and Kinghorn, he mistook the road, and his horse falling over a precipice, he was killed on the spot, 19th March 1286. This good king was long remembered for his incessant labours in the preservation of order and the administration of justice throughout his dominions. There is certain evidence that in his days the country was rich and flourishing, abounding in agricultural and commercial wealth, secure from foreign aggression, and blest with internal tranquillity.

13. In concluding this second portion of our history, it is worthy of notice, that from the death of Ceanmohr in the year 1093, to that of Alexander III. in 1286, a period of nearly two centuries, Scotland flourished under a succession of vigorous monarchs, the lineal descendants of Malcolm. This interval was marked by various important events, all of them tending to the consolidation and prosperity of the country. Galloway was brought into subjection; the last attack of the Scandinavians was repulsed at Largs; the Hebrides were united to their parent island; large feudal possessions were acquired in England by several kings; whilst multitudes of Saxons, Normans, and Flemings, were encouraged to settle in the country, and to introduce amongst its rude inhabitants the arts of civilized life. The soil was cultivated, property was rendered secure, foreign commerce

and domestic manufactures were encouraged, and respect for the government and the laws was introduced into the remotest provinces.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded William the Lion? What age was Alexander II. when he succeeded to the throne? When and where was he crowned? Who was then king of England? What was his character? Who had rebelled against him? What party did Alexander espouse? What induced him to adopt this line of conduct? What steps did King John take? Who succeeded John? When were the controversies between Henry III. and Alexander brought to a conclusion? Whom did Alexander marry?

2. Having obtained peace, how did Alexander employ himself?

3. When did Alexander lose his queen? Whom did he marry after her death? When did this marriage take place? When was Edward I. born? When was a son born to Alexander? In what cares did the king employ himself? From what cause did disturbances arise in Argyll? In what manner did the king proceed in reducing them? Where did he die? What was his age? How many years had he reigned? What was his character? Are his statutes preserved?

4. Who succeeded Alexander II.? What was his age? When was Alexander III. crowned? In what language was the coronation-oath read? In what language was it explained? What happened at the coronation?

5. What was the conduct of Henry III. on the accession of Alexander III.? What was the Pope's answer?

6. Whom did Alexander III. marry? For what lands did he perform homage to Henry III.? For what other possession did Henry require him to do homage? Did Alexander comply with this demand?

7. From this time till Alexander reached manhood, what was the state of the country? Did England interfere in these disturbances?

8. Who invaded Scotland in 1263? What was his object in so doing? Where did he disembark? What was the issue of this invasion? Where did he die? What steps did Alexander take after the victory? For what price did he purchase the Western Isles? From whom did he purchase them? What was the date of this transaction?

9. What was Alexander's conduct as to the Scottish church? What was the demand of Fieschi, the papal legate? Was it complied with? Did the Scottish clergy acknowledge that they were bound by the canons of a council held in England? When required by the Pope to pay a contribution to the King of England for a crusade, did they agree?

10. Did Henry III. attempt to levy the contribution? What steps were then taken by the Scottish clergy? Where did they hold their provincial council? How long did these canons continue in force? Are the canons then passed still preserved?

11. What transaction regarding homage took place between Alexander and Edward in 1278? Who performed homage for Alexander? What were the terms in which this homage was performed?

12. When did Alexander's queen die? To whom did he marry his daughter Margaret? Whom did his son Alexander, prince of Scotland, marry? When did the Queen of Norway die? What issue did she leave? When did the Prince of Scotland die? By what name do our historians distinguish the daughter of the Queen of Norway? What measures were adopted by the King of Scotland under this calamity? Whom did he choose for his second wife? When and where did he die? What was his character?

13. What were the principal great events in the period from the death of Malcolm Canmore till the death of Alexander III.? What was the extent of this period?

PERIOD III.

SECTION I.

1. ON the death of Alexander III., he was succeeded by his granddaughter Margaret, who had already, in 1284, been acknowledged heir to the crown; but as she was still an infant, and resident in Norway, a parliament assembled which appointed a regency. Fraser, bishop of St Andrews, Duncan, earl of Fife, Alexander, earl of Buchan, Wishart, bishop of Glasgow, Comyn, lord of Badenoch, and James, the steward of Scotland, were the guardians to whom the government was intrusted.

2. Edward I., a monarch of great power, talent, and ambition, proposed that his son, Prince Henry, should marry the infant queen; and the Scottish Estates, having consented to this in a treaty concluded at Brigham (18th July 1290), despatched ambassadors to bring home the royal infant, who, to the great grief of the whole kingdom, died on the voyage.

3. By this event the progeny of Alexander III., upon whom alone the crown had been settled, became extinct, and many competitors arose. The most distinguished of these were, Robert Bruce, lord of Annandale, descended from the second daughter of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother of King William the Lion, and John Baliol, lord of Galloway, sprung from the eldest daughter of the same noble baron. Baliol was the great-grandson of the earl, and Bruce was his grandson. The first insisted that his right was unquestionable, he being the offspring of the eldest daughter; the second maintained his claim to be preferable, because he was nearer by one descent.

4. Edward, seeing that the Scottish nation looked in perplexity to the miseries of a disputed succession, and were divided into different parties, judged that the time was favourable for reducing the whole under his own dominion. He had already been consulted by Eric, the ruler of Norway, grandfather of the infant queen, on the affairs of her kingdom; he had entered into negotiations with the Estates of Scotland concerning the marriage of his son to the same princess; and some ancient writers have asserted that the nobles applied to him to act as judge or umpire between the competitors. It is certain that this monarch, whether invited or uninvited, determined to regulate the succession; to revive the claim of feudal sovereignty which had been renounced by Richard I.; and under cover of this claim to make himself master of the country.

5. He accordingly commanded his barons to assemble with an army at Norham, on the 2d of June 1291; having invited the nobles and clergy of Scotland to meet him at the same place, with the view to a conference, in the previous month of May. His object was first to decide in his own favour as a judge, and, in case resistance were made, to compel obedience by military force. The barons, temporal and spiritual, accordingly met him at the time and place appointed (10th May); when, after declaring that he was ready to do justice to all the competitors, he required them in the first place to acknowledge him as lord paramount of their kingdom. This unexpected and unjust demand was heard with dismay. For a time all were silent; and at length some one observed that it was impossible to give an answer to such a question whilst the throne was vacant. "By holy Edward," said his majesty, "whose crown I wear, I will vindicate my just rights or perish in the attempt." He, however, granted them a delay of three weeks for deliberation.

6. On the 2d of June, the same dignitaries again met the king at Upsettlington, a small town opposite Norham, where they proceeded to determine the great question at issue. At this assembly eight competitors for the crown were present,—Robert Bruce, lord of Annandale; Florence, count of Holland; John de Hastings; Patrick Dunbar, earl of March; William de Ros; William de Vesey; Robert de Pinckeney; and Nicolas de Soulis; John Baliol, lord of Galloway, attended next day. The Chancellor of England, addressing himself to Bruce, demanded whether he acknowledged Edward as lord paramount of Scotland; and that baron expressly and publicly declared he did acknowledge him as such. On the same question being put, the same answer was given by Baliol and all the other competitors.

7. The next step in this solemn mockery, in which an unprincipled monarch and a selfish nobility presumed to dispose of rights which belonged not to them but to the people at large, was equally degrading. The competitors set their seals to a public instrument, in which they agreed to receive judgment in the cause from Edward as lord paramount, and to abide by his award. The regents of the kingdom surrendered their power into his hands; the keepers of its castles delivered them up; the regents and the principal barons swore fealty; and the King of England, requiring a universal homage from ecclesiastics, barons, and burgesses, commanded that all who refused it should be arrested and committed to prison.

8. The candidates for royalty were now required to state

their claims; and Edward ordered them to be considered by commissioners chosen from both countries. He next consulted his parliament upon what feudal principle judgment ought to proceed; he heard the arguments of the several competitors; and he decided (17th November 1292), that the kingdom of Scotland belonged to John Baliol. This judgment, however, he observed, was not to impair his own right as lord paramount whenever he chose to enforce it. He forthwith ordered the regents, who had been appointed on the death of Alexander, to deliver the government into the hands of Baliol; and on the 20th November 1292 that prince swore fealty to the sovereign from whom he had received the crown.

EXERCISES.

1. By whom was Alexander III. succeeded? Where was Margaret at this time? Whom did parliament appoint regents?

2. What proposal was made by Edward I.? Did the Scottish Estates consent to it? What treaty was made regarding this proposal? Where did the princess die?

3. What happened in consequence of this event? Were the descendants of Alexander III. extinct? Who were the most distinguished of the competitors for the crown? From whom was Robert Bruce descended? From whom was John Baliol descended? Who was David, earl of Huntingdon?

4. What unjust project did Edward I. adopt at this time? In what way, and under what pretence, did he determine to accomplish his design? What claim did he resolve on reviving?

5. Where did he command his barons to assemble an army? When were they to be ready? When did he require the Scots to meet him in a conference? Where was this conference to take place? What demand was made by Edward at this conference? What reply was made to this? What delay was given for deliberation?

6. Where was the second conference held? How many competitors appeared for the crown? What were their names? What degrading and false admission did they make?

7. To what instrument did the competitors set their seals? What step was taken by the Scottish regents? What did Edward require? Under what penalties was this demand made by Edward?

8. What were the competitors next required to do? Who were to consider these claims? In whose favour did Edward decide the cause? When was this decision given? With what reservation was this judgment given? What degrading step was taken by Baliol?

SECTION II.

1. IN all these proceedings the sole object of Edward was to make himself master of Scotland; and he took an early opportunity to convince the new sovereign that he meant him only to be a nominal ruler. A dispute arose regarding the possession of some lands belonging to the earldom of Fife. The cause was brought before the king, when Macduff, the party against whom he decided, appealed to the English monarch, who instantly summoned his vassal to attend in person the court of his lord paramount. The unfortunate

Baliol perceived, when it was too late, the state of servitude to which he had reduced himself. He obeyed the summons; but when asked to make his defence, declared he would give no answer without the advice of his people. Edward, in great anger, reminded him that he was his liegeman, and had sworn homage to him; to which remark the other had the spirit to reply that the present cause did not regard him personally, but respected his subjects. He therefore requested delay till he had consulted with them, and, full of resentment at the indignity with which he had been treated, returned home.

2. War, as Edward had wished and anticipated, now broke out between the two countries. The Scottish parliament assembled at Scone; all Englishmen were dismissed from court; an alliance was negotiated with Philip, the French king; and an army invaded Cumberland with the usual commission to lay waste and destroy. Being repulsed, they again broke into Northumberland; but as their inroad was conducted without any regular plan, they finally retired in disorder. The enemy, meantime, with an overwhelming force, and a more distinct object, proceeded towards the eastern borders. Berwick was then a Scottish town, inhabited by a large population, and distinguished for its commercial wealth and enterprise. They took it by storm, put eight thousand men to the sword, and plundered it of all its riches (March 1296).

3. Baliol now renounced the homage he had sworn to his feudal lord, and the latter, continuing his expedition, advanced to Dunbar, where he defeated the Scottish army, and made himself master of the castle, one of the strongest fortresses in the country. The lord steward next yielded up the castle of Roxburgh; Edinburgh, after a short siege, surrendered; Stirling was abandoned; and the spirit of the nation seemed, for a season, to sink into despondency. Intimidated by these reverses, the feeble sovereign was induced to implore mercy, to perform a humiliating penance, and at length to resign his authority and people into the hands of the conqueror (7-10 July 1296). In this manner concluded the brief and disastrous reign of that unfortunate prince.

4. Edward now made a progress through Scotland; and from the abbey of Scone carried off the famous stone upon which her kings had, from time immemorial, been inaugurated. He then held a parliament at Berwick, where he received the homage of the clergy and laity of the kingdom which he now considered his own. He appointed Warenne, earl of Surrey, governor; Hugh de Cressingham, treasurer; and William de Ormesby, justiciar; and trusting to the

wisdom of the measures which he had adopted, he returned in triumph to his capital. But his enjoyment was of short duration; for at this important and critical moment arose the famous WILLIAM WALLACE.

5. The hero now named was the son of Sir Malcolm Wallace of Elderslie, near Paisley; his mother was a daughter of Reginald de Crawford, sheriff of Ayr; and he appears to have been born about the middle of the reign of Alexander III. As a boy he had beheld the independence and the happiness of his country; as a man he witnessed its misery and degradation. He disdained to swear homage to Edward; and having slain an Englishman who had attacked and insulted him, was declared an outlaw and pursued for his life. Fleeing into the wilds and fastnesses of the country, he was soon surrounded by a little band of resolute men, in like circumstances with himself, who chose him for their captain. For such an office he was admirably qualified. He was an able military leader; possessed of indomitable courage; was generous and eloquent; and animated, moreover, by an inextinguishable love of freedom. His frame of body was athletic; his height above that of the tallest men; and his countenance, expressive of benevolence towards his friends, was terrible when provoked or in the presence of an enemy.

6. In May 1297, Wallace, who had been joined by Sir William Douglas, attacked Ormesby, the English justiciar, at Scone; he dispersed the troops by whom he was surrounded; forced their leader to save himself by flight; and put to death every one who fell into his hands. His small force now gradually assumed a formidable strength; receiving the aid of Robert Bruce, the Steward of Scotland, Sir Andrew Moray of Bothwell, and of others the most powerful among the Scottish barons. Dissensions, however, soon divided these brave but jealous chiefs, who affected to consider Wallace as a man unworthy to command them. Warenne, who led an army against them, found them encamped near Irvine, strong, indeed, in numbers, but enfeebled by their personal enmities and disputes. Instead of uniting, as patriotism would have dictated, against the public enemy, Robert Bruce, the Steward of Scotland, Alexander de Lindsay, and Douglas, made haste to offer their submissions to Edward, and were pardoned. Wallace, who had never sworn fealty to that monarch, retired with a few followers, including Sir Andrew Moray, into the mountainous district of the north (9th July 1297); from which he soon afterwards issued with a new army and a more determined spirit of hostility against the oppressors of his country.

7. At this time he laid siege to Dundee; but, having received intelligence that the English, with a numerous army, were approaching Stirling, he marched suddenly against them, and encamped near Cambuskenneth, with the intention of guarding the passage of the Forth. The enemy, who were commanded by Warrene the governor, and by Cressingham the treasurer of Scotland, with thoughtless impetuosity and rashness began to pass the narrow wooden bridge which was then thrown over the river. At that moment, Wallace rushed down upon them from the heights, and defeated them with great slaughter (12th September 1297). Hugh de Cressingham, who, by his exactions, had made himself peculiarly odious to the Scots, was slain; and it is said they indulged their savage animosity by flaying his dead body, and making horse-girths of his skin. The conqueror took possession of Berwick; and as a famine, the consequence of these hostile movements, soon appeared, he led his army into Northumberland, where, for three weeks, he ravaged the country. On his return he was chosen by his followers supreme governor of the kingdom, in the name of John Baliol, whom he and his adherents still recognised as their sovereign (11th November 1297).

8. The assumption of this dignity by a man of inferior birth disgusted the barons, who thought more about their feudal consequence than the freedom of their native land. In the meanwhile Edward assembled an army, and having, at the same time, equipped a fleet, which he commanded to proceed to the Clyde, he invaded Scotland, with the design of penetrating into the western counties and there concluding the war. Wallace, on his part, was not idle. He collected a considerable force; but aware that his antagonist could not long support himself in a wasted country, he resolved to watch his progress without risking a battle, and attack him when he had commenced his retreat. This plan, but for the treachery of the nobles, would have succeeded. Having advanced to Kirkliston without meeting any material impediment, the invader, whose ships were detained by contrary winds, began to suffer from want of provisions, and after enduring much distress was compelled to retire. The patriot leader, who was in the neighbourhood of Falkirk, was well informed of the enemy's motions, although they knew nothing of his approach; and he had already given orders to attack them as soon as they should turn their backs. At this moment, Patrick Dunbar, earl of March, and Umfraville, earl of Angus, betrayed their countryman. They sought the English camp, and informed the king where the Scottish army lay. He thanked God, withdrew his orders for a retreat, and

instantly advancing, came up with the insurgents, whom he found in order of battle, on the side of a small hill near Falkirk. The infantry were arranged in four circles, with their long pikes pointing outwards. Between the circles were the archers, and in the rear a body of horsemen commanded by Comyn of Badenoch, and other barons. Edward instantly attacked them. The cavalry, whose leaders were jealous of Wallace, deserted him "without a blow given or taken;" and although the foot fought with the utmost gallantry, they were at length defeated with great slaughter (22d July 1298). Their brave leader, with the few that remained, retreated by Stirling across the Forth.

9. Robert Bruce, earl of Carrick, John Comyn, and Lambertton, bishop of Glasgow, were now chosen guardians of the desolated kingdom. Wallace, meanwhile, who was more worthy of the office than any of them, voluntarily resigned his dignity, and returned to the station of a private man. From this period till his death the history of this extraordinary person is involved in great obscurity, and there is reason to believe that, disgusted with the conduct of those nobles whose selfishness and treachery had brought ruin on their country, he abandoned his native land, and resided some years in France.

10. In the two following years, Edward, who had reaped little advantage from the victory, twice invaded Scotland, but without any decisive success, and at length, by the interposition of France, a truce was concluded. Pope Boniface VIII. soon after claimed the kingdom, as belonging to the Holy See, and declared that it was subject to no feudal dependence on the English crown. The southern parliament repelled the papal claim with much indignation; and in defiance of it, the king again (1301) led an army into that country, though not with better success than on former occasions. John de Segrave being despatched with a large force, was completely defeated near Roslin, by Sir Simon Fraser, and Comyn one of the guardians of the kingdom, who, attacking in succession the three divisions into which his troops were separated, and which marched at too distant intervals to be able to support each other, nearly cut them all to pieces (24th February 1303).

11. Enraged at this defeat, Edward, having disengaged himself from all foreign affairs that he might concentrate his whole energies against Scotland, once more invaded it with an overwhelming force. This was his fourth expedition since the battle of Falkirk; and the people, worn out by incessant war, were at last compelled into a temporary submission. The monarch penetrated into the north as far as Caithness, and

then returned towards the Lowlands. At Stirling, Comyn, the guardian, made an ineffectual stand; his army was dispersed, and he, with Robert Bruce and the rest of the nobility, having first stipulated for their lives and estates, yielded to the conqueror (9th February 1304). From the benefits of this compact Wallace, by the king's order, was specially excepted. To him he would grant no terms but those of an unconditional surrender; and the other, not choosing to place his life in the power of his mortal enemy, buried himself in the mountains and forests, where, for a time at least, he eluded his vengeance. It was his boast that "he had lived a freeman, and a freeman he resolved to die."

12. Edward now laid siege to the castle of Stirling,—the last asylum of national freedom; the garrison of which, after a very obstinate and sanguinary defence, were forced to capitulate. Soon after this event, Sir John de Menteith, a Scottish baron who had sworn fealty to England, basely exerted himself to discover Wallace, and at last succeeded by means of the treachery of a servant to whom the patriot had confided the secret of his retreat. Menteith instantly seized him and delivered him to his enemy. This great man, loaded with chains, but preserving the same undaunted spirit which had distinguished his whole life, was now carried to London, and arraigned as a traitor in Westminster. "I never was nor could be guilty of treason to Edward," said he, "for I never swore homage to him; I have fought against him, and slain his subjects because they were the oppressors of my country." This was construed into a plea of guilty, and the gallant chieftain was condemned to death. He was accordingly beheaded, and his body cut into four quarters; his head was placed upon London Bridge; and his limbs were publicly exposed at Newcastle, Berwick, Perth, and Aberdeen. Thus perished, 23d August 1305, one of the most heroic men that ever lived either in ancient or modern times. The English king then made a complete settlement of Scotland, and flattered himself in the belief that at length the people were completely subdued.

EXERCISES.

1. What was Edward's object in these proceedings? What dispute arose in Scotland at this time? Before whom did the cause come for decision? To whom did Macduff appeal? What step was taken by Edward? What passed at the interview between Edward and Baliol?

2. What happened on Baliol's return to Scotland? With what country did Scotland enter into alliance? What English counties did the Scots invade? What steps were taken by Edward? What town did he besiege? When was Berwick taken? How many persons were put to the sword?

3. What step was taken by Baliol? To what place did Edward advance?

Which party were defeated at Dunbar? Who surrendered the castle of Roxburgh? By what act did Baliol conclude his reign? When did this campaign of Edward take place?

4. What were Edward's next proceedings? What did he carry off from the abbey of Scone? Where did he hold his parliament? Who did him homage at Berwick? Whom did he make governor of Scotland? Whom did he make treasurer? Whom did he make justiciar? Who arose in Scotland at this time?

5. Whose son was Wallace? When was he born? What were his first actions? Who chose him their leader? What were the predominant qualities of his mind? Describe his person?

6. Who joined Wallace in 1297? Whom did Wallace and Douglas attack? Who joined them after this action? What weakened the Scottish army? What happened at Irvine? What did Wallace do? Who retired with him?

7. To what town did Wallace lay siege? What caused him to raise the siege? To what town did he march? Where did he encamp? Who commanded the English army? What rash action did they commit? What was the result? What did the Scots do with Cressingham's body? Who took possession of Berwick? Where did Wallace lead his army? What office did he assume?

8. What were the feelings of the Scots barons when Wallace was made governor? What steps were taken by Edward? What was Edward's plan for the campaign? What plan did Wallace adopt? What frustrated this plan? What compelled Edward to order a retreat? Where was Wallace at this time? Who betrayed Wallace's position to Edward? Where was the battle fought between the Scots and the English? How did Wallace arrange his army? Who gained the victory? Where did Wallace retreat?

9. Who were now chosen guardians of Scotland? What step was taken by Wallace? Is Wallace's history known after this? To what country is it supposed that he retired?

10. What was Edward's conduct in 1299 and 1300? By whose interference was a truce concluded? Who claimed Scotland about this time? Where and by whom was John de Segrave defeated?

11. What was Edward's conduct on hearing of this defeat? How many invasions of the English had Scotland suffered since the battle of Falkirk? Who opposed Edward at Stirling? When did the Scottish nobles submit to Edward? Did they stipulate for their lives? What became of William Wallace?

12. To what castle did Edward lay siege? Who seized and delivered Wallace to the English? To what city was Wallace carried? Where was he tried for treason? What was his defence? What was done with his body?

SECTION III.

1. THE notion that Scotland was finally conquered was soon proved to be groundless. Within five months, the country which Edward imagined was to sink silently into a province of his kingdom, arose once more in open rebellion against him. The two most powerful barons at that time in the north were John Comyn and Robert Bruce, the latter of whom, being the grandson of the competitor, inherited his right to the crown; and Comyn, on the other hand, who was the son of Marjory, the daughter of Devorguilla of Galloway, succeeded to the claim which Baliol had renounced. Bruce, although he had hitherto acted an inconsistent part in the various struggles which his country made for its liberty, appears never to have abandoned his pretensions to the throne.

These, however, he felt it would be difficult to establish without the confidence and co-operation of Comyn; and unless one or other sacrificed his birthright, the people would be distracted between their contending factions. In these circumstances he made this proposal to his rival, "Give me your lands, and I will renounce my claim, and support yours, to the crown; or, take my lands, and support my title to the throne." Comyn consented, for this price, to give up his pretensions; but having become master of the other's secret, he basely betrayed him to Edward when he happened to be in England, and while his plans were still immature.

2. At this moment Bruce became aware of his danger, by secret information received from his relative the Earl of Gloucester, and fled to Scotland. Ignorant that his treachery was discovered, Comyn agreed to meet him at a conference to be held in the church of the Friars Minorite at Dumfries. Their few followers remained at some distance, and the two barons were soon engaged in earnest conversation. Suddenly words grew warm: Bruce accused his former friend of having disclosed their designs to Edward; Comyn gave him the lie; upon which the indignant earl stabbed him with his dagger (10th February 1306). His attendants then rushed forward, and the traitor, along with his brother, Sir Robert, who attempted to defend him, was barbarously murdered.

3. Bruce, by thus giving way to a sudden paroxysm of passion, was involved in the double guilt of homicide and sacrilege, for Comyn had been slain within the sanctuary of a church, and on the steps of the high altar. The English judges were at this moment holding their court in the castle of Dumfries. He expelled them, and seized the place. Riding then, with his followers, to Lochmaben, which was in the hands of his brother Edward, he held a consultation with his friends, and it was resolved that the only course now left to him was openly to assert his claim to the throne. He repaired to the ancient abbey of Scone, and there, on the 27th March 1306, was crowned sovereign of Scotland. The right of placing the monarch in the regal chair belonged to the Earl of Fife, then an infant. Isabella, his sister, countess of Buchan, who entertained a romantic admiration for the new king, claimed the privilege and performed the ceremony.

4. Edward, whose health was now broken by disease although his energy and ambition were unsubdued, received the accounts of this revolution with a burst of ungovernable fury; but he instantly determined to lead an army in person against the daring usurper, as he termed Bruce, and addressed a letter to the Pope, acquainting him with the

murder of Comyn. The angry Pontiff excommunicated Robert and all who shared with him in the atrocious assassination of the earl; and this spiritual denunciation, there is reason to believe, was more dreadful to the king and his followers than the wrath or the power of his warlike enemy. The die, however, was cast, and although sensible of the dangers and difficulties by which he was surrounded, he was not of a temper to abandon the enterprise he had begun. At first, however, every thing seemed to go against him.

5. Edward had appointed Aymer de Valence, earl of Pembroke, guardian of Scotland; and this commander advanced to Perth, on which Bruce had meditated an attack. The English, however, surprised and routed his followers in the wood of Methven (19th June 1306); and he himself, after having been four times unhorsed, and as often rescued, was driven, with a few friends, into the fastnesses of Athole. To these strongholds, Nigel Bruce, his brother, conducted the queen and other faithful ladies, who had determined to encounter the dangers of the enterprise with their male relations.

6. Not long after this (11th August 1306), the king was attacked by Alexander of Lorn, in a pass on the borders of Argyllshire, and after a desperate struggle was overpowered and compelled to retreat. As the winter now approached, he sent his consort and her attendants, under the protection of his brother, to the castle of Kildrummie, in Mar; whilst he, with a few faithful adherents, forced his way into Kintyre, and from thence passed over to the little isle of Rachlin, on the northern coast of Ireland,—a retreat unknown to his enemies, where he spent the dark months of the year. Meanwhile, a lamentable fate awaited his friends at home. His wife and daughter, who had fled to the sanctuary of St Duthac, in Ross-shire, were betrayed to the enemy by the earl of that county, and imprisoned by Edward with circumstances of minute and ingenious cruelty. The castle of Kildrummie being taken, Nigel Bruce, Christopher Seton, his brother-in-law, Alexander Seton, and the Earl of Athole, were executed by orders of the same monarch. Simon Fraser, a warrior of high reputation, Herbert de Norham, and many other Scottish barons, shared a similar fate; and the English king, irritated by his increasing sickness, and enraged at the obstinacy of the Scots, foolishly imagined that by such cruelties he should put an end to the war.

7. Bruce, meanwhile, was in Rachlin; but on the approach of spring he ventured over to Arran, and from thence sent a messenger to Carrick, where his own estates lay. His object was to ascertain how his vassals were affected, and if

there were any hope of success should he appear amongst them. It was agreed, that if their minds were disposed to his interests the envoy should light a fire on an eminence above his native castle of Turnberry. All day Bruce watched with intense anxiety, keeping his eyes fixed on the opposite coast. At length a flame blazed up, and, with a shout of joy, he ran to his boats, and embarked with the few brave men who had espoused his cause. It was night before he landed, when he found his messenger watching on the beach, who at once told him all was hopeless. "Traitor," said Bruce, "why did you light the beacon?" "I lighted no beacon," said he, "but some one kindled a fire on the hill, and I hastened hither lest it should mislead thee. Percy, with a numerous garrison, is in the castle, and the country around is in the hands of our enemies."

8. For a moment the king hesitated amidst these complicated difficulties, but at last he resolved, at all hazards, to pursue his enterprise. The English did not dream of an enemy, as he had not been heard of for many months, and they believed him dead. With his followers, who were only a handful of men, but resolute and trained to war, he attacked their quarters, and put all who opposed him to the sword; whilst Percy, uncertain of the numbers of those by whom they were assailed, did not dare to issue from the castle in their defence. Many of his vassals now joined Bruce; and he felt himself strong enough to collect supplies and arms, till the approach of a far superior force compelled him once more to retire to the mountains.

9. This success was clouded by a severe reverse, which deeply affected his spirits. His two gallant brothers, Thomas and Alexander, had raised a small band of soldiers in Ireland, and, having landed at Loch Ryan in Galloway, were leading them to join him. They were attacked, however, and, after a sanguinary action, made prisoners, by M'Dowal, a chief of that country, who carried them, wounded and bleeding, to the English king at Carlisle. The tyrant ordered them instantly to be executed (9th February 1307). Sir James Douglas, then a youth, retaliated upon the enemy. Passing in disguise into Douglasdale, where his paternal castle was in their hands, he discovered himself by night to some of his vassals. On Palm Sunday (19th March 1307), the hostile garrison went in procession to the church, leaving the castle untenanted by all but the cooks and menials, who were preparing a feast for their return. Douglas instructed some of his followers to join the procession and enter the church with arms under their frocks. He himself remained in ambush with-

out. On a signal given, the shout of "Douglas! Douglas!" was raised, and his people rushing forward, in a few moments put all their enemies to the sword. He then seized the castle, feasted his followers, and burnt it to the ground.

10. About the same time the Earl of Pembroke advanced into the west against Bruce, and came up with him at Loudonhill, in Ayrshire. The whole force which the king could then muster were 600 spearmen, but he intrenched himself with great skill, and awaited the approach of the earl, who had under him a fine body of cavalry. The Scots, however, trusting to their long spears and compact order, totally routed the English, and compelled them to seek refuge in the castle of Ayr (March 1307). Not long after, he defeated the Earl of Gloucester; and Edward having advanced, although extremely ill, with a great army to Carlisle, had his last moments imbittered by the accounts of these reverses. Denouncing vengeance against the insurgents, he insisted on arming himself and being placed on horseback at the head of his forces; but he was so weak that he required to be supported in the saddle, and in deep mortification was carried to his couch, from which he never rose. He died at Burgh-on-the-Sands on the 7th of July 1307; leaving it as his last injunction that his bones, being separated from the flesh by a process which he minutely described, should be carried in front of the army till Scotland were subdued.

11. His death, at this critical moment, was an event extremely favourable to the liberty of that country; for his successor, Edward II., was a feeble prince, and utterly unfitted to cope with Bruce, as was soon shown by the issue of affairs. He advanced with his army as far as Cumnock, in Ayrshire, and then returned home. Upon his retreat the king invaded Galloway, and twice defeated the Earl of Buchan; whilst his brother Edward was equally successful against the enemy in other places. The royal cause gained at this time a great accession in Thomas Randolph, afterwards the illustrious Earl of Moray; and soon afterwards his majesty inflicted vengeance on the Lord of Lorn, invaded his territory, defeated his followers, and took his castle of Dunstaffnage. During these events the measures of Edward were fluctuating and contradictory. Various governors were appointed and displaced; no regular plan of military operations was adopted; negotiations for a truce and a peace were proposed, begun, and interrupted; and in the meanwhile Bruce steadily pursued his career of success.

12. In September 1310, the English prince again invaded Scotland; but his able antagonist having prudently avoided

a general action, he was obliged to retire without achieving any thing of importance, whilst his troops were grievously distressed by a famine which then raged throughout the country. The northern king, in the two succeeding years, recovered Linlithgow, made frequent incursions beyond the Tweed, took the town of Perth by escalade, and made himself master of the important castles of Dumfries, Dalswinton, Roxburgh, and Edinburgh. The soldiers of Edward were generally dispirited by such reverses; new partisans flocked daily to support a cause which seemed destined to be triumphant; the Bruce entered Cumberland, made himself master of the isle of Man (11th June 1313), took the important strengths of Rutherglen and Dundee, and laid siege to Stirling,—one of the few remaining castles belonging to his enemies.

EXERCISES.

1. For how long a time did Scotland submit to Edward? Who were then the two most powerful nobles in Scotland? What relation to the competitor was Bruce? Whose rights did Comyn inherit? What proposal did Bruce make to Comyn? What was Comyn's conduct? Where was Bruce when Comyn betrayed him?

2. Where did he flee? Where did he and Comyn meet? What happened at this meeting? Who was slain along with Comyn?

3. What measures did Bruce adopt after this? From what town did he expel the English judges? Where did he hold a consultation with his followers? Where and when was he crowned? To whom belonged the right of placing the Scottish kings in the regal chair? Who claimed this right at Bruce's coronation?

4. How did Edward receive the accounts of this revolution? In what state of health was the monarch at this time? What measures did he adopt? To whom did he write? What steps did the Pope take?

5. Whom had Edward appointed guardian of Scotland? Where did the Earl of Pembroke attack Bruce? Who was victorious? To what district did Bruce retreat? Who joined Bruce and his followers in Athole? When did this happen?

6. Who next attacked Bruce? Which party was victorious? To what retreat did Bruce send his queen? Who conducted her thither? To what place did Bruce retreat? What became of his queen and his daughter? What Scottish barons were taken at Kildrummie? How did Edward dispose of them?

7. Where was Bruce when these executions took place? Where did he sail for on the approach of spring? To what district did he send a messenger? What orders did he give him? What happened when Bruce was watching? What happened on reaching Carrick?

8. What measures did Bruce adopt? How did Percy conduct himself? By whom was Bruce joined? How did he collect supplies? Where did he retire to?

9. What reverse did Bruce suffer at this time? Who attacked his brothers? What was their fate? What exploit did Sir James Douglas perform? In what manner did he win Douglas Castle?

10. Where did the Earl of Pembroke encounter Bruce? What force had Bruce? Who was victorious? Whom did Bruce next defeat? Where was Edward I. when he heard of these victories? In what state was he? What efforts did he make? When did he die? What were his last injunctions?

11. Who succeeded Edward I.? What was the character of Edward II.? How far did he advance with his army? What measures did Bruce adopt on his retreat? Whom did he defeat? Who joined Bruce at this time? Upon whom did Bruce now take vengeance? What line of conduct was pursued by Edward II.?

12. In what year did Edward invade Scotland? What tactics did Bruce adopt? On Edward's retreat what castles did Bruce recover? What places did he next recover? What castle did he lay siege to? How often did he invade England?

SECTION IV.

1. THE main design of Bruce was to avoid great battles, in which he knew he must fight to much disadvantage; and by protracting the war to weary out his enemies. His brother Edward at this moment conducted the siege of Stirling, and rashly entered into an agreement with the governor of the castle, who consented to surrender if the blockade were not raised by an English army before the 24th June 1314. The king was displeased with this treaty; but finding his honour engaged, military operations were suspended.

2. By the appointed time Edward II. conducted a mighty host into Scotland; the greatest in point of number, and the most perfect in equipment, that had ever been led against that kingdom. It was a hundred thousand strong, including forty thousand cavalry and fifty thousand archers, and with this force he advanced from Berwick, proceeding towards Stirling. He found his royal antagonist, with forty thousand men, of which only five hundred were horse, the rest spearmen, encamped in a field near that town, called then the New Park. His right wing rested on a rivulet styled the Bannock, or Bannock-burn; his front extended to St Ninians, in a line parallel to the present road leading from that village to Kilsyth, and was defended by a morass; whilst his left was protected, partly by the valley in which the brook runs, and also by numerous rows of parallel pits with sharp stakes driven into them, which rendered it impassable for cavalry. Sir Edward Bruce led the right wing; the Steward of Scotland and Sir James Douglas the left; Randolph, earl of Moray, the centre; whilst the king himself commanded a strong reserve in the rear.

3. On Sunday, the 23d June, the Scottish army heard mass at sunrise, and intelligence was brought that the enemy, who had slept at Falkirk, were advancing in great force. Bruce, suspecting that the access to Stirling Castle on the left was too open, ordered Randolph with his division from the centre to strengthen that wing, whilst he himself occupied the station from which the other had removed. It was on this point that the English commenced the attack, by a strong

body of horse under Sir Robert Clifford, who attempted to turn the Scottish flank and throw themselves into Stirling. Randolph, however, with his spearmen formed in a compact square, sustained the attack, and after a desperate contest, in which the assailants suffered severely, dispersed and defeated them. Whilst the right was thus engaged, the centre, under the Earls of Gloucester and Hereford, had been repulsed by Bruce, who, when marshalling his line, mounted on a small palfrey, and with only a battle-axe in his hand, was attacked by Sir Henry de Bohun. The king met the gallant knight in his career, and laid him dead at his feet by cleaving his skull; but afraid of breaking the order of battle he restrained his men and allowed the enemy to retire.

4. Both armies spent the night on the field; and on Monday, the 24th June, a day ever memorable in the annals of Scotland, the soldiers armed themselves before dawn; the king confessed and received the sacrament; and mass was performed by the Abbot of Inchaffray in front of the line. The Scots then breakfasted, arrayed themselves for battle, and advanced into the plain; whilst the English proceeded from their encampments in an immense square column, rendered unwieldy by the narrowness of the ground over which they moved. As Edward, who led his host in person, was approaching the opposite army, the abbot, barefooted and holding a crucifix aloft, was seen to pass slowly along their line, while the men knelt, bending their faces to the earth. "See," said the English king, "they yield to me, they ask mercy." "Ay, my liege," replied Umfraville, who rode beside him, "mercy they do ask, but not of you; it is to God yonder men kneel; on that ground they will either conquer or die." "We shall see that instantly," said the vain monarch, and ordering the trumpets to sound, his centre moved against the right wing, commanded by Edward Bruce, and charged it, spurring their horses to full speed. The infantry received the shock on their long spears, and after a dreadful struggle the cavalry were routed. Randolph now attacked their main body; Walter, the steward, and Sir James Douglas brought up their divisions to his support; the archers were assaulted and broken, by a judicious charge of Keith, the high marshal, at the head of a small body of horse; and the king, at this moment, bringing up his reserve, who were yet fresh, his whole line, in close order, pushed simultaneously forward, with levelled spears, and raising loud shouts.

5. By this desperate charge the English were much shaken, and their ranks began to waver and undulate; when, turning

their eyes towards the eminence called the Gillies-hill, immediately behind the Scots, they saw, as it were, a new army descending at a rapid pace, and with waving banners, to join their countrymen. These were only the sutlers and camp-boys, who, by Bruce's directions, had formed pennons of the sheets and tent-curtains, and making a formidable appearance from a distance, marched down the hill in full view of the enemy. At this sight many squadrons began to steal away; when Robert, putting himself at the head of his own division, and shouting his war-cry, made a last and desperate charge, by which the mighty host was entirely broken. The rout soon became general; their vast force, split into a thousand pieces, was seen dispersing in every direction; and their hapless monarch, fleeing from the field, halted not till he reached the castle of Dunbar, leaving 30,000 of his subjects dead upon the field, amongst whom were 200 knights and 700 esquires. The conqueror, however, with his characteristic magnanimity, used his victory with great moderation; whilst the multitude of prisoners of high rank who fell into his hands brought to him, by their ransoms, no small portion of wealth. Such was the great and decisive battle of Bannockburn.

6. During the same year in which this memorable victory was achieved, Bruce twice invaded England, and laid the country under contribution. In the commencement of 1315, he again ravaged the county of Durham, and attempted, although unsuccessfully, to make himself master of Berwick and Carlisle. On his return a parliament was held at Ayr (26th April 1315), for the settlement of the crown; which, in the event of his dying without male issue, was to descend to his brother, Edward Bruce, and failing him, to Marjory, the king's only daughter, who soon afterwards was married to Walter, the high steward.

7. About this time the Irish, no longer able to endure the oppression which they suffered under the English government, made an offer of their kingdom to the Scottish monarch, who thought proper to decline it. His brother, however, crossed the channel with an army of six thousand men, and, after some brilliant successes, assumed the royal title on the 2d May 1316. He was afterwards joined by the king, who proved in that country, as elsewhere, the superiority of his military genius; but being recalled home, the new sovereign was attacked by the enemy, defeated, and slain, 5th October 1318. Edward II. had embraced the opportunity afforded by the absence of Robert to make an attempt on his dominions; but he was repulsed by the brave Douglas,

warden of the borders; after which he sent a fleet to the Firth of Forth, with troops on board, who landed in vast numbers and ravaged the coasts. With a view to keep them in check, the Earl of Fife put himself at the head of a party of five hundred horse; but these, finding the enemy in great force, fled before them. William Sinclair, bishop of Dunkeld, meeting the fugitives, reproved them for cowardice; and, seizing a lance, cried out—"All who wish well for Scotland follow me!" At this instant he made a resolute attack upon the pursuers, who fled to their ships in such confusion that one vessel was overloaded and sunk. This brave conduct proved highly gratifying to the king, who ever afterwards called Sinclair his own bishop.

8. The tide of success still continued to flow in favour of Bruce. In 1318, he took the rich and important city of Berwick by escalade; the castle soon after capitulated; and his people, in two successive expeditions, wasted Northumberland and Yorkshire. "They returned," to use the expression of an ancient historian, "driving their prisoners before them like flocks of sheep." In a parliament held during the same year at Scone (December 1318), it was resolved that, if the king died without male issue, Robert Stewart, the son of his daughter Marjory, should succeed to the crown.

9. A resolute attempt was now made by England to regain Berwick, which they attacked both by sea and land; but the place being bravely defended by the young steward, the enemy were compelled to raise the siege. Sir James Douglas, and Randolph, earl of Moray, immediately afterwards crossed the west marches, and defeated the Archbishop of York at Mitton, near Boroughbridge (20th September 1319). The battle, from the great slaughter of ecclesiastics, was jocularly called the Chapter of Mitton, after which a truce was negotiated with Edward.

10. No sooner had it expired, than this monarch, for the last time, invaded Scotland with a formidable army (August 1322); but Bruce, avoiding a general engagement, wasted the country, drove off the cattle and flocks, and reduced his enemies to great extremities. The latter advanced to Edinburgh, whence they were soon compelled by famine to retreat without having seen an armed foe. Robert immediately retaliated by leading an army into Yorkshire, where he defeated the English king, who saved himself by a rapid flight, abandoning his camp and his baggage to the victors. Soon after (30th March 1323) a truce was concluded, which was to last till

the 12th June 1336; and in the succeeding year a son was born to Bruce, who was named David,—an event which was hailed with joy by the whole kingdom.

11. Edward II. having resigned his crown to his brave and ambitious son, this prince showed at first a disposition to enter into negotiations for peace with the Scots; but the latter people maintaining that the late truce had been repeatedly broken by England, Douglas and Randolph, on the 15th June 1326, invaded that country by the western borders. The king, then a youth, but full of warlike and ambitious thoughts, and having under him experienced commanders, led an army in person against them; yet such was the skill of the Scottish generals, that although seldom out of view of the smoke which marked their desolating march, he could not for many days get sight of their camp. At last one of his esquires discovered and led him to their position; but it was impregnable, and the only method which suggested itself was to blockade it, and reduce them by famine. Next morning, however, to his astonishment, he saw neither enemy nor camp; and it was discovered that they had removed farther up the river Wear, where they occupied ground still stronger than before. The same night, when the English camp was buried in sleep, Douglas broke through the lines, penetrated to the royal pavilion, and, but for the spirited defence of the chaplain and domestics, would have carried off the king. Being thus baffled, he cut his way through the soldiers who had been roused on the alarm, and returned safe to his own camp. On the succeeding night, the Scottish leaders eluded the vigilance of their enemies, crossed a morass which lay in their rear, and, pursuing a line of retreat unknown to their opponents, were far on their way back to their own country before day broke, and disclosed to Edward the mortifying fact that they had escaped out of his hands. Deeply disappointed, he immediately returned to York and disbanded his army.

12. England was now so completely exhausted by the expenses of a long war, and the country so desolated by the repeated invasions, that peace became indispensably necessary; and in a parliament held at York the conditions were adjusted. It was agreed that she should renounce fully, and for ever, all claim of superiority over Scotland: that the boundaries of the kingdom held by Bruce and his successors should be the same as were recognised in the reign of Alexander III.: that the stone on which the kings were wont to be crowned should be restored: that the Princess Johanna, Edward's sister, should be espoused to David, the son

and heir of Robert: and that a perpetual peace should be concluded between the two nations. A treaty was accordingly signed on these conditions at Northampton (17th March 1328); and in July the proposed marriage was solemnized at Berwick. Thus, after a sanguinary war of thirty-four years, dating from its commencement under Baliol, the Scots saw their liberty and independence established upon a permanent basis; and the heroic king, who was raised up by Providence as their deliverer, beheld his efforts crowned with complete success. But he did not long survive this great consummation. Although not an old man (being only fifty-five) his constitution was broken by the toils of war; and a disease, then called a leprosy, occasioned by his exposure in early life to the inclemency of the weather, preyed upon him, and undermined his strength. Taking an affectionate farewell of his barons, whom he called round his deathbed, he requested Sir James Douglas to carry his heart to Jerusalem, and inter it in the church of the Holy Sepulchre; and having received his promise that he would faithfully perform this solemn commission, he placidly expired on the 7th June 1329. After his decease, Douglas attempted to carry his dying commands into effect, and accordingly embarked for Syria; but, landing in Spain, he was slain in battle by the Saracens, together with several of his brave companions. The heart of Bruce, enclosed in a silver casket, was brought home and deposited in Melrose Abbey.

EXERCISES.

1. What was Bruce's design at this time? What rash agreement did his brother Edward make with the English? What did Bruce determine to do?
2. What force did Edward now lead against Scotland? From what town did he advance? What force had Bruce to oppose to him? Where had Bruce drawn up his army? What position did he occupy? Who led the right wing? Who led the left wing? Who commanded the centre? Who commanded the reserve?
3. On what point did the English commence their attack? Who repelled Clifford? What happened at this same time in the centre? On what day did these actions take place?
4. On what day did the great battle of Bannockburn take place? How did the Scottish king begin the day? Who performed mass? What were the principal events in this battle?
5. By what stratagem was it decided? How many men did the English lose?
6. What hostile measures did Bruce adopt after this battle? How often did he invade England? How was the succession to the crown settled? Who married Bruce's only daughter?
7. What offer did the Irish make to Robert? What became of Edward his brother? Did not Robert repair to Ireland? What was the consequence? What advantage did Edward take of Robert's absence? Whither did he send his fleet? What was the result of the expedition? Who repelled the enemy? What name did Bruce give to the Bishop of Dunkeld?

8. What city did Bruce take in 1318? What counties in England did he invade and waste? Upon whom, failing Bruce's issue male, did the parliament settle the crown?

9. By whom was Berwick defended against the English? What was the result of the siege? Who defeated the Archbishop of York at Mitton? What name was given to the battle? For what reason was this name given?

10. What last measure did Edward now adopt? What were Bruce's tactics on this occasion? What success attended these measures? What step did Bruce take on the retreat of the English? Where did he defeat Edward? When was a truce concluded between Scotland and England? For what time was it to last? What happy event took place after this? What name was given to Bruce's son?

11. To whom did Edward II. resign his crown? By whom was the truce first disregarded? When did Douglas and Randolph invade England? On what quarter did they invade it? Who marched against them? How did the Scottish generals conduct their inroad? Where were they found encamped? What exploit did Douglas perform at this time? How was the young king saved? What became of the Scottish army? When did this happen?

12. Did England now seek peace with Scotland? Where were the preliminaries agreed on? What were the conditions on which the Scots agreed to the peace? What was determined as to the superiority claimed by England? What boundaries of the kingdom did the Scots insist on? What was to be done with the stone of Scone? Whom was Prince David to marry? When did the marriage take place? For how many years did the Scots maintain the war of liberty? What had broken Bruce's constitution? When did Bruce die? What was his age? What became of Sir James Douglas? Where was Bruce's heart buried?

SECTION V.

1. DAVID II. succeeded his father Robert when only five years of age, and was crowned on the 24th of November 1331. Randolph, earl of Moray, who was appointed regent during his minority, ratified the peace with England, and afterwards applied himself with great success to the restoration of internal tranquillity.

2. Edward III., finding it in vain to contend openly with the Scots, had now recourse to secret stratagem, and soon found an instrument fit for his purpose in the person of a monk, whom he is said to have engaged to poison the regent. This man professed great skill in curing the stone, a disease under which Randolph was known to labour, and, being admitted to his presence, is said to have given him powders mixed with some deleterious substance. He then withdrew, and informed the king that the earl would expire on a certain day. Edward, on receiving this intelligence, immediately marched with a formidable array to the borders; where, to his surprise, he found a force ready to receive him, under the command of Moray, who had suspected the designs of the enemy. When the English monarch learned by his spies that the Scottish army was assembled, he did not hazard an engagement, but immediately began to retreat, after punishing the monk as the cause of his disappointment. Randolph, how-

ever, was unable to follow him ; and, as his disease increased, he hurried home, disbanded his followers, and died at Musselburgh, on the 20th of July 1332, deservedly regretted by the whole nation.

3. He was succeeded in the regency by Donald, earl of Mar. Shortly after this election, Edward Baliol, son of John, the competitor of Bruce, assisted by some English noblemen, landed two thousand men at Kinghorn, from whence he passed to the neighbourhood of Perth. Mar lost no time in making preparations to repel this inroad ; but the invader, anticipating his motions, crossed the river Erne in the night, surprised him in his camp at Dupplin, and defeated him with great loss ; the regent himself, the Earls of Carrick, Menteith, and other barons, being among the slain.

4. Eager to revenge this affront, Patrick Dunbar, who commanded a division of the Scots which had not been engaged, proposed to his officers to attack Baliol, who now occupied Perth ; but as they shamefully refused to follow him, he was obliged to disband his troops. No farther opposition being made to the victor, he was crowned at Scone on the 24th of September ; and proceeding afterwards to Roxburgh, he there pusillanimously surrendered the liberties of Scotland, and acknowledged Edward III. as his liege lord. Bruce's party now chose for regent Sir Andrew Murray, the king's maternal uncle ; who immediately raised a small force, with which he took the town of Perth and destroyed its fortifications, while Baliol was in Annandale receiving the homage of the nobility. Emboldened by this success, and learning the security into which the usurper had allowed himself to fall, he despatched a thousand horse, under Sir Archibald Douglas, who, making an attack in the night, defeated him with great loss, and pursued him across the border. Expelled from the country which he had undertaken to govern, he offered to do homage to the English sovereign, if he would reinstate him in the possession of it. The latter readily accepted the condition, and forthwith declared war against his northern neighbours.

5. Upon this declaration, Edward consulted his parliament, from whom he obtained a grant of money to enable him to accomplish his object. Accordingly, advancing with a numerous army, he besieged Berwick, the governor of which, Sir William Keith, defended it with singular bravery during three months, till at length provisions beginning to fail, he agreed to surrender if not relieved by the 30th of July 1333. In the meantime, the Scots made every exertion to afford

assistance to the garrison; and with this view, the regent having been taken prisoner, they chose Sir Archibald Douglas to be his successor, who, after speedily assembling a large body of men, marched into the vicinity. On the approach of this force, Edward threatened to execute the governor's two sons, who had fallen into his hands, if he did not immediately yield, although the stipulated day was not yet come. In this dreadful extremity, Sir William experienced the most painful feelings; but his lady, who was with him, earnestly begged that he would not disgrace himself and his family by betraying his country, and with astonishing firmness encouraged him to refuse submission. The cruel threat was forthwith carried into execution; and on hearing of it, the Scottish general, filled with rage, rashly attacked the English on the 19th of July at Halidon-hill, where he was defeated with great slaughter. In that battle 10,000 of the Scots were slain, including their brave commander, and many other chiefs. The governor of Berwick, too, found it necessary to surrender; and Edward, leaving some forces with Talbot, his lieutenant, to assist Baliol, returned into his own land. Intimidated by these reverses, the nobles attached to the house of Bruce sent the young king and queen to France.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Robert? Who was appointed regent during his minority?
2. What secret stratagem is Edward said to have employed to poison the regent? How did the monk execute his design? What became of Randolph?
3. Who succeeded him as regent? Who invaded Scotland after Mar's election? What was the result of his expedition?
4. When was Baliol crowned? What measure did Bruce's party adopt? What victory did Douglas obtain? What induced Edward to declare war?
5. In what manner did the governor of Berwick defend himself? What cruelty did Edward exercise towards the governor's two sons? What loss did the Scottish army sustain at Halidon-hill? What were the consequences of this defeat?

SECTION VI.

1. AFTER the departure of the enemy, Baliol was acknowledged king by a parliament assembled in the capital on the 10th of February 1334; the ascendancy of England was again recognised; many of the nobility swore allegiance to her sovereign; and, to complete the misfortunes of the nation, the usurper ceded to him the castles of the metropolis, of Berwick, Dunbar, and Roxburgh, with all the south-eastern counties, which were declared to be for ever annexed to the southern monarchy. This transaction rendered Baliol the object of universal hatred to the people over whom he was sent to rule.

2. The strongholds of Lochleven, Kildrummy, Urquhart, and a few others, still remaining faithful to David, the reigning prince sent forces against them, and ordered Sir John Stirling to reduce the first of these places, which was, however, bravely defended. The besiegers, finding they made no progress in their attempts to take it, began to raise a lofty mound in order to shut up the outlet from the lake, and, by inundating the island on which the castle stands, to drown all within the fortifications. To prevent this catastrophe, the garrison, after considerable progress had been made in building the wall, broke it down during the night, when the water, suddenly overflowing the English camp, swept away at once men, horses, and tents.

3. No sooner were the enemy's forces withdrawn, than the Scots revolted; and Sir Andrew Murray, who had been released from captivity, resumed operations against the intruder with such success, that he expelled the greater part of his adherents from the kingdom.

4. To retrieve the condition of his affairs, the English king in 1336 again raised an army and marched northwards; but the natives, taught by experience, retired on this occasion to their hills and fastnesses. Edward having penetrated as far as Inverness, and finding none to oppose him, returned home, after leaving Comyn, earl of Athol, as commander of his forces. His fleet likewise entered the Forth, where the admiral's ship, which struck upon rocks, was greatly injured, and the rest having encountered a violent storm, withdrew in a shattered condition.—David's affairs at this period were very low; notwithstanding which, a number of his friends chose John Randolph and Robert Stuart as joint regents. No sooner was this proceeding publicly known, than numbers, who were weary of the English yoke, flocked to their standard; upon which Edward again put himself at the head of a powerful army, and advanced into the country as far as the banks of the Tay. Stuart being sick, Randolph took Comyn prisoner; but, on his swearing allegiance to the lawful king, he set him at liberty. Athol, however, disregarding his oath, repaired to the enemy's camp, and engaged to drive out of Scotland all the partisans of Bruce. The active regent next, with a chosen party, attacked with success a detachment of the invaders near Edinburgh; but, unfortunately, he soon afterwards fell into an ambush, and was carried to Perth, where Edward still remained.

5. About this time an English fleet, consisting of 160 sail, again made its appearance in the Forth, and, landing some troops, destroyed a monastery on Inchcolm. The ships then

put to sea, but were dispersed in a violent storm, and with difficulty reached home. As soon as the king heard of this disaster, he returned to London to prosecute the war against France, taking Baliol along with him, and leaving the Earl of Athol to conclude hostilities in the north.

6. Shortly after, whilst this nobleman was besieging the castle of Kildrummy, he was attacked by the Scots, commanded by the Earl of March, Sir Andrew Murray, and Sir William Douglas, who slew him, and routed his forces. For this exploit Murray was re-elected regent, in the room of Stuart and Randolph, the former being sick, and the latter a prisoner. His activity quickly improved the aspect of things. He not only retook many castles at home, but made an inroad into England, whence he returned laden with immense booty. At this time a severe famine raged in Scotland, during which thousands of the lower orders perished. The scarcity of provisions is said to have driven the garrison of Cupar to the expedient of deserting; and the soldiers having compelled a sailor, whom they treated with cruelty, to transport them to East Lothian, were left by him on a sand-bank, where they were all drowned on the return of the tide. On the 28th of January 1338, the English army, commanded by Salisbury and Arundel, commenced the siege of the castle of Dunbar, which, for the space of six months, was gallantly defended by Agnes, wife of the Earl of March. At length the famished garrison were relieved by Alexander Ramsay, a gentleman of an adventurous spirit, who, in the dead of night, sailed past the guard-ship, in a boat laden with provisions; and, after his arrival, bravely sallied out upon the enemy, who, being wholly unprepared for the attack, suffered great loss, and were compelled to relinquish their undertaking.

7. At this period, the regent attempted to reduce the fortresses of Edinburgh and Stirling, but did not succeed; he subdued, however, the whole of Lothian; soon after which he died at his castle of Avoch in Ross, respected and lamented by all good men. He was succeeded in his high office by Robert, the steward of Scotland, who carried on the war, having appointed William Douglas, justly celebrated for his singular feats of valour, to discharge the duties of commander. The latter having gone on a mission to France, to inform David of the state of affairs in his native kingdom, the regent, in his absence, besieged Perth. At this critical juncture, the general returned with a party of foreign auxiliaries, when that town, as well as Stirling, surrendered. He afterwards obtained possession of the castle of Edinburgh, by means of a certain person named Curry, master of a ship, who, under

pretence of carrying a present of wine to the governor, procured admittance to sell provisions to the soldiers. Accompanied by twelve chosen men dressed like sailors, Douglas entered along with the skipper, and having slain the sentinels, sounded a horn; on hearing which, his companions rushed in, and put the greater part of the enemy to the sword.

EXERCISES.

1. What ascendancy did Edward now obtain in Scotland? What castles did Baliol deliver up to Edward?
2. What garrisons remained faithful to David? By what means did the garrison of Lochleven destroy their besiegers?
3. Who resumed operations against the English? What was their result?
4. Did not Edward again invade Scotland? What was the result of his expedition? Who were chosen joint regents? What exploits did Randolph perform? What became of him?
5. What befell the English fleet which appeared in the Forth? How did the English monarch proceed on hearing of this disaster?
6. By whom was Athol defeated? Who was re-elected regent? What became of the garrison of Cupar? How and by whom was the garrison of Dunbar relieved?
7. What became of the regent? Who succeeded him? For what purpose did Douglas go to France? By whose means did he obtain possession of Edinburgh Castle?

SECTION VII.

1. ON the 4th of May 1341, David and his queen landed at Inverbervie, after an absence of eight years. In the following season, Alexander Ramsay took from the English the important castle of Roxburgh, of which he was made governor; at which promotion Douglas was so enraged, that he embraced the first opportunity to despatch him. The king, on being informed of this outrage, resolved to apprehend and punish the assassin; but through the influence of his numerous friends, he first obtained a pardon, and afterwards the appointment which had excited his envy.

2. David now made several inroads into England, and having destroyed a number of castles, returned thrice with great booty; after which a truce was concluded for two years, through the mediation of France. On the expiry of the peace in 1346, he sacrificed his own interest to the good of his ally; and accordingly, in order to draw Edward's forces from that country, he rashly determined, contrary to the advice of Douglas, to commence hostilities against him. Pursuant to this resolution, he raised an army of fifty thousand men, and ravaged Northumberland to the very gates of Durham; but being suddenly attacked, on the 17th October, by Percy, he was defeated with great slaughter. Fifteen thousand of his followers were slain, among whom were Keith,

earl marischal, and Charteris, the chancellor; the king himself was taken prisoner, with the Earls of Douglas, Sutherland, Fife, Menteith, Carrick, and several others. In consequence of this dreadful reverse, the Scots were obliged to relinquish all the lands which they held in England; and, as they also gave up Teviotdale, Liddesdale, the Merse, and Lauderdale, the Lammermoor hills became for a time the southern boundary of their kingdom. Percy and Baliol at the same unhappy juncture laid waste the whole of Lothian, Annandale, and the contiguous lands, without opposition. These disasters were followed by a visitation still more awful,—a destructive plague, which swept off one-third of the inhabitants.

3. To prevent the nation from sinking under their misfortunes, the French king sent forty thousand crowns, and a chosen body of troops under the direction of one of his generals, who persuaded the nobles not to make peace with the enemy without his consent. On hearing of this transaction, the English again cruelly plundered Lothian: in consequence of which Patrick Dunbar, William Douglas, and Stuart, earl of Angus, in November 1355, made an inroad beyond the Tweed, defeated a body of troops who opposed them, and took the town of Berwick. But Edward having speedily collected an army, obliged them to abandon their conquests; after which he went to Roxburgh, where Baliol surrendered the kingdom to him, and begged in return that he would revenge the injuries inflicted upon him by the Scots. In compliance with this wish, the proud monarch resolved to subdue the spirit of that people; but, as the fleet containing his provisions was destroyed by a storm, he proceeded homeward, having previously vented his fury upon Edinburgh and other towns in the neighbourhood.

4. After a brief interval, Douglas, Kirkpatrick, and Stuart, recovered Galloway, Nithsdale, and Annandale, from the invaders. But by the intervention of the Pope, peace was at length concluded between the two countries; the Scots engaging to pay one hundred thousand silver merks as a ransom for their sovereign, who now returned home after having been a prisoner eleven years. His attention was first occupied in punishing those who had fled from the battle of Durham; and he afterwards devoted himself to restore the tranquillity of his kingdom.

5. About this time, such dreadful torrents of rain fell as carried away water-mills, bridges, houses, men, and herds of cattle, and destroyed many of the towns which stood near the banks of rivers. These disasters were succeeded by a destruc-

tive pestilence, which swept away a great number of the inhabitants.

6. In an assembly of estates which was held at Scone in 1363, David suggested that the King of England, or his son, should be appointed to succeed him on the throne,—a proposal which excited the utmost indignation among the nobility. Some supposed that he was weary of war; others, that he considered such an arrangement would contribute to the welfare of his people; and a third party suspected that it was made in consequence of some oath which he had been forced to take when he was a prisoner.

7. He died soon after in the castle of Edinburgh, on the 22d February 1371, in the forty-seventh year of his age and forty-second of his reign,—a monarch unworthy of his illustrious father, selfish, devoted to pleasure, and utterly regardless of the duties which he owed to his subjects.

EXERCISES.

1. When did King David arrive from France? Who took the castle of Roxburgh? What became of Alexander Ramsay? How did the king treat Douglas?

2. How was David revenged on the English? By whose mediation was a truce concluded? Why did David again engage in a war with England? What loss did the Scots sustain in the battle of Durham? What unhappy consequences followed this defeat?

3. What measures did the French king adopt? What ravages did the Scots commit upon the English? How did Edward retaliate these injuries?

4. Who recovered Galloway, Nithsdale, and Annandale? By whose intervention was peace concluded? How long was King David a prisoner?

5. What great calamities took place at this period?

6. What proposal did David make in the assembly of estates? What conjectures were formed concerning it?

7. When did David die? What was his character?

SECTION VIII.

1. DAVID was succeeded by his nephew Robert II., in conformity with the destination of the crown made by the Scottish parliament in the reign of Robert Bruce. The Earl of Douglas at first opposed his accession, and urged a right to the throne as representative of the families of Comyn and Baliol; but, finding all the nobles adverse to his claim, he prudently desisted, and, as a reward for his self-denial, the king's daughter was given in marriage to his son. Shortly after this occurrence, the English broke the truce by killing a Scottish knight at a fair,—an atrocity which roused the indignation of his countrymen, who soon retaliated the injury upon their southern neighbours. Douglas made an inroad at the head of twenty thousand men, burned the town of Penrith, and returned home laden with booty. By way of reprisal the enemy collected fifteen thousand soldiers under Talbot,

who ravaged the several counties which stretch along the border; but on their march homeward they were surprised in their camp by a body of five hundred horse, who put the whole of them to flight. About the same time the plague again broke out in Scotland, and, for the space of two years, raged with greater violence than at any former period.

2. The English, being now deeply engaged in foreign war, were earnestly desirous of peace with the Scots; and accordingly sent John, duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, who concluded a truce with the Earl of Carrick on the part of the latter nation. During this negotiation, a civil contention broke out in the south, in consequence of a poll-tax of fourpence being levied upon the common people. The Scottish ambassador concealed his knowledge of this fact till the treaty was concluded; and then informed the duke that his countrymen had too much honour to take advantage of their neighbours, by declaring war against them while in a state of internal discord. But, the cessation of arms not having been duly notified, the enemy availed themselves of this neglect so far as to send ten thousand horse and six thousand archers, under the Earls of Northumberland and Nottingham, who made dreadful havoc on the lands of the Douglasses and Lindsays. These noblemen in revenge speedily raised fifteen thousand horse, ravaged Northumberland as far as to Newcastle, and caused the truce to be proclaimed on their return home. This treaty expired at the end of three years, when the Scots again commenced their incursions; but these were soon interrupted by the Duke of Lancaster, who, intrusted with the command of a formidable host, penetrated to Edinburgh. His soldiers were desirous to burn that city; but the duke, remembering the hospitality which he had experienced there a few years before, would not permit them. He even soon returned home with his troops: upon which William Douglas closely followed him, demolishing every place of strength, and reducing all Teviotdale, except Roxburgh Castle. A suspension of hostilities, however, was acceded to by this brave chief, who did not long survive his valuable services, but died soon after of a fever.

3. On the expiration of the truce in 1385, the King of France sent his admiral John de Vienne, with two thousand auxiliaries, one hundred of whom were armed cap a pie, and two hundred with cross-bows, to assist the Scots. On learning this, Richard II. of England called into the field sixty thousand foot and eight thousand horse, with which he advanced northward, resolving to humble his restless enemy.—Douglas and Vienne, finding their antagonist too strong to be opposed,

resolved to invade his country, as the surest method to make him retreat. This plan completely succeeded, and both armies returned home laden with plunder, without having met or even seen each other. Shortly after this occurrence, as dissensions had broken out between the Scots and their auxiliaries, Robert persuaded his ally to withdraw them.

4. About this time, William Douglas, son of the Earl of Galloway, and brother-in-law to the king, attacked the Irish, burnt the rich town of Carlingford, plundered the Isle of Man, and sailed back to Loch Ryan, enriched with spoils. Soon after his return, he accompanied the prince and his own father in an expedition against the English; during which he conquered Percy in single combat, taking from him his pennon, in presence of both armies. The vanquished earl, resenting this affront, raised all his dependants, and pursued the invaders, who were not half their number, as far as Otterburn, where a desperate engagement took place on the 19th August 1388. Both sides fought with determined valour: the contest was very doubtful till the Northumbrian chief and his brother were taken prisoners, when, at length, victory declared for the Scots, though they purchased it dearly by the loss of their brave leader Douglas. It was his last request to his friends Lindsay and Sinclair, that they should conceal his death till after the battle; that they would not suffer his standard to be beaten down; and that they would revenge his slaughter. His fate occasioned much grief among his followers, who returned to Melrose Abbey, and there interred him with military honours.

5. Soon after this event King Robert died, at the castle of Dundonald, on the 19th of April 1390, in the seventy-fifth year of his age and nineteenth of his reign.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded David? By whom was his accession at first opposed? How did Douglas act towards the English? What became of the English army sent to oppose him? What melancholy event succeeded?

2. Whom did the English delegate to negotiate peace? Who was the Scottish ambassador? When did the truce expire? What was the consequence? What became of Douglas?

3. What number of troops did the French king send over to assist the Scots? What measures did Richard adopt? What plan did Douglas and Vienne concert to make him retreat?

4. What success had William Douglas in the Irish expedition? When was the battle of Otterburn fought? What became of Douglas?

5. When did King Robert die? At what period of his age and reign did his death happen?

SECTION IX.

1. ROBERT II. was succeeded by his son John, whose name, which was thought inauspicious, was, by a decree of the

estates, changed to Robert III.; after which he was crowned on the 13th of August 1390. Being a quiet and peaceable prince, the management of public affairs was committed to his brother the Earl of Fife, who was much better qualified to conduct them.

2. Soon after the king's accession, the clans in the north renewed once more their domestic feuds; to terminate which, he desired them to nominate thirty combatants on each side, who were to decide the contest before him with their swords. Both parties agreed to this proposal; and accordingly, on the day appointed, a bloody fight took place before the whole court, at Perth, in September 1396. On this occasion one of the combatants having hid himself, the rest were at some loss how to proceed, till a spectator offered, for a small sum of money, to act as his substitute; and this person, having entered the lists, greatly contributed to the success of the party whom he joined. The royal expedient succeeded in restoring tranquillity; for as the most furious leaders on both sides were slain, the rest returned to their peaceful occupations.

3. The king created his eldest son Duke of Rothesay, and honoured his brother, who aided him in the labours of government, with the title of Duke of Albany. He also raised to the earldom of Crawford the faithful Sir David Lindsay. Shortly after, Dunbar, earl of March, betrothed his daughter to Prince David, and paid a considerable part of her dowry. This proceeding enraged his rival, Archibald, earl of Douglas, who, by means of his interest at court and the offer of a large sum of money, prevailed upon the royal youth to forsake Elizabeth Dunbar and marry his daughter. March, justly offended at this treatment, expostulated with the king on the dishonour done to his family, and demanded back that part of the dowry which he had given him; but, as his majesty withheld it, the earl fled to England, and took arms against his native country. Robert insisted that the fugitive should be given up, and, in consequence of a refusal, war was declared. Henry, having invaded Scotland, took Haddington and Leith, and laid siege to the castle of Edinburgh; while the Duke of Albany, indifferent about his brother's interests, and wishing to secure the kingdom to himself, permitted the enemy to withdraw without molestation, after having obtained much praise for his clemency to all who surrendered.

4. The Earl of March, however, still continued his incursions upon the borders; and Douglas, resolving to put a stop to them, advanced at the head of ten thousand men, in search of him and his ally Lord Percy. A desperate battle took place betwixt these leaders at Homildon in Northumber-

land, on the 14th September 1402, in which the Scots were completely overthrown; Douglas, with Murdoch, son of the Duke of Albany, the earls of Moray, Angus, and Orkney, being taken prisoners, and many of the nobles slain.

5. After this victory, Percy, in his turn, rebelled against his sovereign, and engaged Douglas, his captive, to assist him. Henry led his forces against them in person, and a sanguinary battle, in which the Scottish earl greatly distinguished himself, was fought at Shrewsbury. Both armies contended in the most furious manner, until the death of the rebel chief turned the scale in favour of the royalists. Upwards of eight thousand fell, many of them men of noble birth; Douglas was taken prisoner, but treated with the courtesy due to his rank and merit.

6. The king about this period committed his eldest son to the charge of Albany, who carried him to his castle at Falkland, where he is said to have been starved to death. On learning the fate of the unfortunate David, he sent for the duke, and charged him with the guilt of despatching the prince: he denied it in the most solemn manner; and, with a view to complete his dissimulation, ordered some persons, whom he accused as the murderers, to be tortured.—Justly fearing the power of his brother, his majesty resolved to send his youngest son, James, to France; but the vessel in which he embarked having been driven by a storm on the English coast, he was unjustly detained by Henry, who, however, gave the youth an excellent education, which afterwards qualified him, when he ascended the throne, to soften in some degree the barbarous manners of his native country.

7. This event produced a fatal effect upon the father, who fainted on receiving the melancholy intelligence. He died at Rothesay, in the Isle of Bute, on the 4th of April 1406, and was afterwards interred in the abbey of Paisley.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Robert II.? What was his character? Who managed the public affairs for him?

2. What disturbances happened after the accession of Robert III.? What measures did he adopt to appease them?

3. To whom did the Earl of March betroth his daughter? What offence did this alliance give? What became of March? On what account was war declared between England and Scotland? What towns did Henry take?

4. By whom, and at what period, was the battle of Homildon fought? Who were taken prisoners in that engagement?

5. How did Douglas conduct himself in a subsequent battle with King Henry? How many fell in that encounter?

6. What crime did Robert's brother commit? By whom was James, his son, taken prisoner? In what manner did Henry treat the young prince?

7. What effect did this produce upon his father? At what period did his death happen?

SECTION X.

1. AFTER the king's death, the regency devolved upon the Duke of Albany, now in his 70th year, a man vigorous, prudent, and energetic, but cruel, crafty, and often led astray by his ambition. About the same period, the Earl of March, having made peace with him, returned home, and remained afterwards in faithful subjection to his natural prince.

2. The year 1410 was remarkable for the erection of public schools at St Andrews, by Bishop Wardlaw and other eminent men; as also for the descent of Donald, lord of the Isles, into Aberdeenshire, where a bloody battle was fought, at the village of Harlaw, with the king's forces, commanded by the Earl of Mar, in which both sides claimed the victory.

3. In the year 1419, the French demanded assistance from the Scots, agreeably to the treaty subsisting between the two nations; and John, earl of Buchan, was accordingly sent to their aid with seven thousand men. In order to prevent his antagonists from deriving any advantage from their services, Henry carried with him the young Scottish king, whom he obliged to send instructions to his countrymen to quit the foreign ranks; but the earl replied, that he would obey no commands which came from a sovereign in captivity, for a prince, while in the hands of his enemy, was in no respect entitled to exercise supreme power. In an engagement which took place shortly after their arrival, the Duke of Clarence, brother to the king, having been wounded by Sir William Swinton, was felled to the earth and slain by Buchan; and the army was totally routed, with the loss of two thousand men. After this victory, the Scottish leader was created lord high constable of France, and the other officers were rewarded according to their rank and valour.

4. On the 3d of September 1420, the Duke of Albany died, and was succeeded as regent by his son Murdoch, who, being of a slothful and indolent disposition, gave too much indulgence to his children, Walter, Alexander, and James, in consequence of which they became haughty and disobedient. As a proof of this, it will be enough to mention, that his eldest son being refused by him a favourite falcon, took it by force, and wrung its neck. Provoked by such conduct, he addressed the youth in the following words:—"Since thou canst not find in thy heart to obey me, I will bring in another whom both of us shall be forced to obey." He accordingly called an assembly of the estates, and persuaded them to send an ambassador to London to negotiate for the liberation of their king. With this request Henry complied, and sent home the prince, after he

had made an agreement for a ransom, and married him to the Earl of Somerset's daughter, that he might be more closely attached to the English. James, having been nineteen years a prisoner, returned to Scotland early in 1424, and was crowned on the 21st May.

5. Soon after his accession, he imposed a tax to pay the price of his liberty; but the first instalment coming in slowly, he defrayed it from his own private revenue. Murdoch and two of his sons were afterwards tried for treason, condemned, and executed near Stirling. The youngest, who alone survived, on learning the havoc made amongst his family, collected a band of men, slew John Stuart, the king's uncle, burnt the town of Dumbarton, and fled to Ireland. James now employed himself in administering justice and suppressing robbery. An instance of this necessary discipline took place, on his tour to the north, in the case of three chiefs, Alexander Macrory, John Macarthur, and James Campbell, persons noted for their violence, who were seized and put to death.

6. Alexander the Islander, having obtained a pardon for his former crimes, once more rebelled, and, collecting ten thousand followers, burnt the town of Inverness, and besieged the castle; but understanding that a body of troops were on their march against him, and that the Catans and Camerons had deserted his cause, he resolved again to throw himself on the royal mercy. Accordingly, having gone privately to Edinburgh, clad only in his shirt and drawers, and holding a naked sword in his hand, he fell on his knees before the king, and begged his life and estate. His petition was so far granted, but he was sent prisoner to Tantallan Castle.

7. James displayed his love of justice in the punishment of a chief named Macdonald, who had not only robbed a poor widow, but who, on her threatening to inform the king, had ordered a blacksmith to nail horse shoes on the soles of her feet, and then desired her to go in that condition to his majesty! The miserable woman, after having recovered, laid her complaint before the sovereign, who immediately seized the offender, with twelve of his accomplices. He treated them all in the same manner in which they had tortured the unfortunate female, and ordered them to be carried through the town in that condition as public examples, and afterwards hanged.

EXERCISES.

1. Upon whom did the government devolve after the king's death? What became of the Earl of March?

2. For what was the year 1410 remarkable?

3. What assistance did the Scots send to the French? How did the general of the former act? What happened in an engagement which ensued?

4. When did the regent of Scotland die? By whom was he succeeded? What plan did the assembly of estates adopt? Whom did James I. marry? When did he return from England?

5. What measures did the king pursue after his return? What became of Murdoch and his two sons?

6. How did Alexander the Islander act? Where was he imprisoned?

7. In what instance did the king discover his love of justice?

SECTION XI.

1. DESIROUS to promote the public welfare of his kingdom, James appointed judges to administer the laws in every county; ordered standard weights and measures to be made; encouraged learned men, by bestowing rewards upon them; and erected public schools, which he liberally endowed. He even promoted learning by attending scholastic disputations, when the state of his civil affairs permitted; and, on such occasions, he showed himself both interested and delighted. His example produced the most salutary effect, and tended to eradicate the false notions imbibed by the nobles, who supposed that study was inconsistent with action, that it weakened their military spirit, and was fit only for monks.

2. At this period the clergy were universally corrupt, their sloth and avarice increasing with their luxury. In order to reform them, the king restored the ancient discipline, and commanded the teachers in universities and schools to send to him from time to time the names of their most distinguished pupils, that he might further their views by seasonable aid.

3. James was distinguished also for his attention to more private measures for promoting the public good. Finding the resources of his country greatly diminished, and trade much neglected, he invited various manufacturers from Flanders, whom he liberally encouraged. By these means he soon rendered his towns more populous, commodities proportionably cheaper, and reclaimed many idle persons to habits of useful industry.

4. Walter, earl of Athol, now secretly aspired to the sovereign power, and, with a view to promote his guilty designs, formed a party amongst the nobles, who complained of the king for keeping the wardships of the young nobility in his own hands. Against this charge James defended himself, and completely satisfied all moderate persons by proving his right according to the laws of the realm, and also from the necessity of the case; because during his captivity the public revenues had been so generally seized by the powerful barons, as not to leave a sufficient income for the maintenance of the royal family.

5. About this period commissioners arrived from France to conduct Margaret, the king's daughter, to her betrothed husband Louis, son of Charles VII. The English, on receiving notice of this marriage, immediately despatched ambassadors to prevent its accomplishment, and also to propose that James should make a league with them; offering, in return, to surrender Berwick and Roxburgh. He referred the envoys of both countries to the assembly of estates then met at Perth, who declared in favour of the French connexion; on which account Henry immediately announced war. Not intimidated, however, by this violent measure, his majesty sent away his daughter, attended by a large train of nobles, who arrived in safety at Rochelle, although an enemy's squadron had been sent to intercept them.

6. Sir Robert Ogle being directed to commence hostilities, invaded Scotland, but was repulsed by William Douglas, earl of Angus, who took fifteen hundred prisoners. James, resolving to revenge the insult inflicted by England, declared war in due form, raised an army, and laid siege to the castle of Roxburgh. He was, however, prevented from making further progress by the arrival of the queen, who informed him of a plot against his life; for, on receiving this intelligence, he deemed it necessary to relinquish the undertaking, to disband his troops, and return home.

7. Of the conspiracy now mentioned, the Earl of Athol, his kinsman Sir Robert Graham, and his grandson Sir Robert Stewart, were the authors. Having learned that their royal master was residing in the convent of the Dominicans at Perth, attended by a few domestics, they procured admittance into an apartment adjoining his bedchamber, whence they rushed upon him as he sat engaged in conversation with the queen, and instantly deprived him of life by inflicting no fewer than twenty-eight wounds. Her majesty was also wounded in two places, while she endeavoured in vain to defend him. Thus died James I. on the 20th of February 1437, in the forty-fourth year of his age, the thirty-first of his reign, and the thirteenth of his actual government. He was a prince remarkable for the rich endowments of his mind, which he cultivated to the highest degree; and he was no less distinguished by his affection for his subjects and his exertions to promote their happiness, of which the many salutary laws enacted during his reign are lasting monuments.

EXERCISES.

1. In what manner did James I. promote the public welfare of his kingdom? What effect did his regulations produce?

2. What plan did James adopt to reform the clergy ?
 3. How did he encourage manufactures, trade, and population ?
 4. How did the Earl of Athol act to expose the king to odium ? How did James defend his conduct ?
 5. What transaction had James with the French court ? In what manner did the English act on this occasion ? In whose favour did the assembly of estates decide ? What were the consequences of this decision ?
 6. By whom was Sir Robert Ogle repulsed in his invasion of Scotland ?
 7. Who assassinated James ? What was James's character ?
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SECTION XII.

1. JAMES I. was succeeded by his only son, of the same name, then a child in his sixth year, who was crowned at Holyrood House on the 25th of March 1437. During his minority, Alexander Livingston was chosen keeper of the royal person, and William Crichton chancellor ; but these ministers unhappily disagreed, in consequence of which the country was divided into two factions.

2. The queen favoured the views of Livingston, and, under pretence of settling all disputes, came to the chancellor at Edinburgh, where, by artfully professing her attachment to his measures, she obtained free access at all times to her son in the castle. Taking advantage of this indulgence, she represented Crichton's conduct in the most odious light to the young prince, and prevailed upon him to accompany her to Stirling. She accordingly concealed him in a chest, in which he was carried to Leith and put on board a vessel, which soon transported them to the place of their destination. This acquisition added strength and popularity to her party, who resolved immediately to possess themselves of the castle, and thereby to extinguish the power of the rival faction. They accordingly surrounded that fortress ; but an interview taking place, differences were adjusted, and the chancellor was again restored to favour. Matters, however, did not continue long on this footing ; the mutual jealousy betwixt the two functionaries revived, and Crichton, at the head of a party of horse, watched an opportunity when the king was going out to hunt, seized his person, and conducted him back to Edinburgh. On discovering their loss, the queen and Livingston followed their adversary thither, and made concessions to him. Shortly after, arbiters were chosen, who speedily effected a reconciliation.

3. An assembly of the estates was then called, to redress the public grievances, and more especially to quash those intestine feuds which were excited by the Earl of Douglas, who was also invited to the metropolis to assist in their deliberations. He accordingly attended, and was received

in a flattering manner by the chancellor, who invited him to sup with the young king in the castle, where the same night he caused him to be treacherously put to death. Desirous of revenge, William, the next earl, did every thing in his power to ingratiate himself with the prince, and at length fully accomplished his purpose. He accordingly persuaded him to call Livingston and the chancellor to account for their administration; but they refused to comply with that demand so long as the sovereign should be under the influence of their opponents. In consequence of this they were immediately declared enemies to the state, and punished by the confiscation of their lands. This sentence, however, far from restoring tranquillity, proved the source of mischief to the country, filling it with ruin and devastation, in the progress of which many of the nobles were cut off.

4. A few years afterwards, an event took place which has been attended with happier effects than could be produced by rival politics and hostile factions. In 1451, the university of Glasgow was founded by Bishop Turnbull, who conferred upon it very ample privileges, and procured a mandate from the pope confirming its establishment.

5. In those days churchmen often acted as ministers of state; and James Kennedy, archbishop of St Andrews, who had hitherto directed the councils of his sovereign, finding that neither his advice nor authority was of any avail, withdrew from court; on which Douglas, who had formed a paction with the Earls of Crawford and Ross, ruled all public matters according to his own will,—his power being so great that even the king was afraid to oppose him.

6. In the year 1450 the English again invaded Scotland with a numerous army, under the Earl of Northumberland, and were met in Annandale by the Scottish forces, commanded by Douglas, when a most sanguinary battle was fought on the banks of the river Sark, in which the former were defeated with great slaughter. They lost three thousand men, besides three generals, one of whom was slain, and the two others taken prisoners. The loss of the Scots amounted to six hundred men, including Wallace, the laird of Craigie. After this victory, James celebrated his marriage with Mary, daughter of the Duke of Guelderland, at Holyrood House.

7. Douglas, continuing still to act with cruelty and oppression, exasperated the king to the highest degree. He accordingly sent for him to Stirling Castle, and there, on the 13th of February 1452, commanded him to dissolve his connexion with the Earls of Crawford and Ross; the other refused to comply, upon which he stabbed him to the heart

with a dagger. His majesty immediately ordered an assembly of estates to be summoned at Edinburgh; and the friends of Douglas, being declared enemies to the commonwealth, thought it necessary, in order to secure their personal safety, to withdraw beyond the Tweed. By the assistance of Percy, they afterwards made an inroad into Scotland, but were repulsed with great slaughter. On learning the fate of Douglas, the Earl of Crawford came before the king, bareheaded and barefooted, acknowledging his guilt in joining the confederacy, and begging his life and fortune, which were readily granted.

8. At this period a civil war raged in England between Henry VI. and the Duke of York, during which James raised an army, resolving to recover some portion of his lost territory, and laid siege to the castle of Roxburgh. He accordingly gave orders to batter down part of the wall with some pieces of ordnance; but, whilst encouraging his troops, one of the cannon suddenly exploded and struck him dead on the spot.

9. In this manner perished James II., on the 3d of August 1460, in the 29th year of his age and 24th of his reign,—a prince celebrated for his valour, moderation, and clemency.—The same day in which his majesty was killed the queen arrived in the camp, and boldly exhorted the nobles to continue the siege, adding, that “she would bring them another king.” Shortly after she led her son into the camp, who, though only eight years of age, was saluted sovereign by the army amidst the loudest acclamations of joy; upon which the garrison surrendered, and the castle was levelled with the ground.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded James I.? Who conducted public affairs during the king's minority?
2. By what means did the queen carry off her son? In what manner did the chancellor again seize the young king?
3. When and on what occasion was the Earl of Douglas slain? What sentence was afterwards passed upon the regent and chancellor?
4. By whom was the university of Glasgow founded about this period?
5. Why did the Archbishop of St Andrews withdraw from court? In what manner did Douglas now behave?
6. What was the consequence of an invasion by the English at this period? With whom did James celebrate his marriage?
7. What became of Douglas? What was the consequence of his violent death? In what manner did the Earl of Crawford act to save his life?
8. By what accident was James II. killed?
9. What was his character? Who succeeded him?

SECTION XIII.

1. JAMES III. was first proclaimed in the town of Kelso; after which the nobles entered England, ravaging the country without resistance, as Henry, being still engaged in the civil

war already noticed, could not offer any effectual opposition. After the battle of Towton, in which his army was routed with great slaughter by the partisans of the house of York, he was obliged to take refuge in Scotland with his family, where he was nobly entertained by James Kennedy, archbishop of St Andrews, who surpassed all his contemporaries in authority and wisdom.

2. During the minority of James, public affairs were conducted by Robert, lord Boyd, the chancellor, and the Archbishop of St Andrews, the Archbishop of Glasgow, and the Bishop of Dunkeld, who concluded a peace with England for fifteen years.

3. The government was for some time administered with great justice and prudence by Kennedy; but Sir Alexander Boyd, the chancellor's brother, whom he had appointed governor to the prince, ingratiated himself with his royal pupil, by alleging, that as he was now able to hold the reins with his own hand, it was time he should be freed from the servitude of priests and women. To these suggestions the young king unhappily listened; on which the venerable archbishop retired to St Andrews, where he soon after died, and the Boyds obtained the whole power. As a proof of their unbounded influence, it may be mentioned, that they prevailed upon James to pass an act to prevent any judicial inquiry from being ever made as to the means by which they had acquired the ascendancy. Soon after this occurrence, the chancellor appears to have engrossed the whole power of the state, whilst his son, who had been created Earl of Arran, was married to the king's eldest sister. But matters did not flow long in this channel; their interest began to decline, and a parliament met at Edinburgh on the 22d of November 1460, to which they were summoned to answer for their conduct. Failing to appear, they were immediately condemned as traitors; Sir Alexander was seized and beheaded; and Lord Boyd escaped to England, where he died of grief.

4. About this time Patrick Graham returned from Rome, where he had been appointed archbishop of St Andrews and the pope's legate for Scotland; but having many enemies at court, he was not permitted to exercise either of these offices, and, after suffering the most wanton cruelty, died a prisoner in the castle of Lochleven. He was a pious and learned man, whose talents and manners were greatly superior to the character of the age in which he lived.

5. On the 13th of July 1469, the king's marriage was celebrated with Margaret, daughter of the King of Denmark, who, in name of dowry, consented to make a permanent gift

of the Orkney and Shetland Isles to the crown of Scotland. Though James acted for some time with great propriety, he afterwards received into his favour persons of the lowest rank, and thereby disgusted the nobility, who held a meeting, at which his brothers John and Alexander presided, to take his conduct into consideration. But the conspiracy being discovered, the former of these youths was apprehended and put to death, and the latter confined in the castle of Edinburgh, whence he afterwards made his escape into England.

6. In consequence of the intrigues of this prince with Edward IV., in which he assumed the title of king, and basely sacrificed the independence of his country, war was declared against the English monarch. An army was raised, which encamped near Lauder, where the nobles, being now exasperated to the highest degree at their sovereign's conduct, and having Douglas, earl of Angus, at their head, hanged those minions whom he had taken into favour, seized his own person, and shut him up in the castle of Edinburgh, under the care of his uncles, the Earls of Athol and Buchan. Meantime, the enemy's forces, commanded by the Duke of Gloucester, after taking Berwick, had advanced to the capital; in which extremity, the Scottish nobles sent for Alexander, who attended the camp of the invaders, and elected him regent. He immediately took possession of the castle, secured his brother, concluded a truce with Gloucester, and, on the 26th of August 1482, surrendered to him the fortress of Berwick, after it had been in possession of the Scots twenty-one years. Nor was this all: the same unworthy prince engaged in a secret treaty with Edward IV. for the dethronement of James; it being stipulated that he himself was to succeed to the throne, and to hold the crown under the southern king as lord paramount.

7. Alexander, however, did not long enjoy his new power. His designs being detected by the nobles, he was compelled to resign his high office; upon which he fled from the metropolis, and gave up the castle of Dunbar to the enemy. In consequence of this treachery, he was formally accused, and summoned to stand trial; but, failing to appear, he was condemned to die as a traitor, and to have his estate confiscated. — Having assembled a small force, he joined the Earl of Douglas, who had likewise gone as an exile into the dominions of Edward, and invaded his native country; but they were met by the loyalists at Lochmaben, and totally routed. Alexander escaped by the fleetness of his horse; Douglas was taken prisoner, and, being confined in the monastery of Lindores, soon afterwards died. A truce for three years was then con-

cluded with England; upon which the Scottish prince, who could no longer expect protection, fled to France, where he closed his days. Not long after, the queen died,—a woman of singular beauty, accomplishments, and probity.

8. James now determined to punish that faction among his nobility who had conspired against him; but the Earl of Angus having received notice of his design, informed the others, who immediately raised an armed force, the nominal command of which they imposed on the king's son. His majesty, in this extremity, requested succours from the pope, and also from France and England. He then assembled his army; drove the rebels across the Forth, and demanded admittance into Stirling Castle; but was refused by Shaw the governor. Having heard that the insurgents had rallied near the Torwood, he resolved to attack them; but, in the battle which took place, his troops were totally routed. It is said that in leaving the field he was thrown from his horse, and being much stunned by the fall, was conducted by a miller and his wife to their cottage, situated at no great distance from the main road. As he was desirous to engage in the duties of religion, the woman ran out exclaiming, "A priest for the king!" upon which one of the rebels, who was in pursuit of the unhappy monarch, announced himself as a clergyman, was introduced to the royal presence, and, upon satisfying himself as to the identity of the fugitive, stabbed him to the heart.

9. This catastrophe took place on the 11th of June 1488, in the thirty-fifth year of his age and in the twenty-eighth of his reign. James is acknowledged to have been a prince of excellent talents and great cultivation of mind; but these were distinctions little appreciated by the rude and barbarous nobility against whom he found it necessary to defend the royal prerogative.

EXERCISES.

1. What did the Scottish nobles achieve after the accession of James III.? By whom was Henry of England received after the battle of Towton, which happened about this time?

2. Who conducted the public affairs during the king's minority?

3. By whom was the government administered? Who was now appointed regent? Who were condemned in parliament?

4. What became of Archbishop Graham? What was his character?

5. When was the king's marriage celebrated? What was the queen's dowry? How did James disgust his nobles? In what manner did the king act towards his brothers?

6. What did the nobles do with the king's favourites? Whom did they elect as regent? When was the castle of Berwick surrendered?

7. For what period was a truce concluded betwixt England and Scotland?

8. On whom did the nobles impose the command of the army?

9. When was James III. slain? What was his character?

SECTION XIV.

1. JAMES IV., at the age of sixteen, succeeded his father, whom he far excelled in energy, activity, and promptitude of decision, qualities absolutely necessary for a Scottish monarch in those times. Soon after his accession, the English sent five ships of war into the Firth of Forth, the crews of which plundered several merchantmen, and made descents on both shores, to the no small annoyance of the inhabitants. On learning this, the king sent his admiral, Sir Andrew Wood, with only two vessels, against them. He bravely engaged the enemy's squadron, captured the whole, and, bringing his prizes into Leith, presented their officers to his sovereign. By this heroic action the victor acquired extensive fame, while he was liberally rewarded by the king for his important service. Henry, on the other hand, was so much mortified at the defeat sustained by his commanders, that he offered a reward for his person, dead or alive; whereupon Stephen Bull, a merchant and seaman, who had under his charge three ships of different rates, undertook to capture Wood, and soon after set sail for the estuary of the Forth, whither the Scottish captain was then returning with his two cruisers from the coast of Flanders. On their meeting, a desperate engagement took place; night alone parted them; the contest was renewed next day with redoubled fury, when, by throwing grappling-irons on board of each other, they fought hand to hand with the greatest valour many hours. Victory at last declared for the northern captain, who, taking Bull prisoner, conducted him and his subalterns ashore. The youthful monarch, after commending the valour of the English officers, freely dismissed them and restored their ships; for which act of generosity Henry expressed his gratitude and admiration.

2. The Earls of Douglas, Hepburn, and Home, assisted the king in the administration. This honour excited the jealousy of the Earl of Lennox and Lord Alexander Forbes, who attempted to raise insurrections; but Lord John Drummond being sent against them with some regular forces, attacked their camp during the night, and completely routed their tumultuary levies.

3. On the 6th of November 1490, James called a parliament, at which all public disputes were adjusted, many salutary laws passed, and internal tranquillity re-established. In order to consolidate the peace of the country, he gave one of his nieces in marriage to Lennox, and the other to Forbes.

4. About this time the public attention was excited by the impostor Perkin Warbeck, who, pretending to be the son of Edward IV., and heir to the throne of England, implored the assistance of the Scots in his attempt to obtain the crown. The king, deceived by his artful address, procured for him the hand of Catharine, daughter of the Earl of Huntly, and even declared war against Henry. He marched into Northumberland, taking Warbeck along with him, who circulated a manifesto, craving the aid of the people to expel the usurper; but as no one joined him, the invader returned home and disbanded his troops. The English monarch prepared to punish this insult, by raising an army to ravage Scotland; but, by an insurrection at home, was prevented from carrying his design into effect. James took advantage of this circumstance, and again crossed the border with a large force: such, however, were the exertions of Fox, bishop of Durham, and the Earl of Surrey, that he accomplished nothing of any consequence. Shortly afterwards a truce was concluded; in pursuance of which he dismissed Perkin, who, landing in Cornwall, was taken prisoner and hanged.

5. On the 8th of August 1503, the king celebrated his marriage with Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII.; upon which occasion he exhausted his treasure by extravagant entertainments and expensive buildings. In order to repair his finances, he determined to make a voyage to Syria; but, war breaking out between England and France, he was prevented from accomplishing his design. He was solicited by the latter country to take part in these hostilities,—an invitation which he prudently declined.

6. On the 22d of April 1509, the English king died, and was succeeded by his son Henry VIII. On his accession the borderers made inroads into Scotland, and slew Robert Kerr, a knight of high character. To check these aggressions, Lord Alexander Home, warden of the marches, raised a body of three thousand horse, with which he entered the enemy's territory, and pillaged the northern counties; but on returning with his spoil, he was suddenly attacked by a large force, lost many of his men, including two hundred prisoners. In consequence of this defeat, and instigated, it is said, by an amorous letter from the Queen of France, accompanied with a ring from her own finger, James immediately declared war against Henry, and having marched fifty thousand men into England, took by storm the castles of Norham, Werk, and Ford. His nobles now advised him to retreat, as many of his followers had left their ranks, provisions were become scarce, and a powerful army was advancing against him; but he was

highly offended at this salutary counsel, saying that, "although the English were one hundred thousand strong, he would fight them." At this juncture the brave Earl of Angus endeavoured to appease his fury by a mild speech, representing his comparative weakness, the advantage of protracting the war, and the dangerous counsel of the French ambassador, by whose influence he was guided in this enterprise. All his reasoning, however, made no impression on the infatuated mind of the king, who desired the earl to "return home, if he was afraid." At these words Douglas burst into tears, foreseeing the approach of ruin; and, being an old man, left the camp, leaving his two sons behind him.

7. In the meantime, the Earl of Surrey approached a hill called Flodden, where an engagement becoming inevitable, both sides prepared for it with tranquillity and order. The English army consisted of twenty-six thousand men, who were divided into two lines; Lord Howard commanding the main body of the first line, Sir Edward Howard the right wing, and Sir Marmaduke Constable the left. The Earl of Surrey himself commanded the main body of the second line, Lord Dacres the right wing, and Sir Edward Stanley the left. The Scottish host was marshalled in three divisions; the middle being led by the king himself, the right by Lennox and Argyll, and the left by Huntly and Home, besides a body of reserve under the Earl of Bothwell. Huntly began the battle, and, after a sharp conflict, put to flight the English vanguard, and chased them off the field; but on returning from the pursuit, he found his friends in great disorder, from the misconduct of the division under Lennox and Argyll, who, elated with his success, had broken their ranks, and rushed headlong upon the enemy, by whom they were surrounded and cut to pieces. At this critical moment, the battalions under the king and Bothwell, animated by the extraordinary valour of their leaders, still made head against their foes, and, throwing themselves into a circle round their sovereign, protracted the action till night separated the combatants. During the engagement, James behaved with great intrepidity, dismounting from his horse, and fighting in the front rank with the spearmen. In this unequal conflict, however, he was cut down, and many of his chiefs, who surrounded him, shared the same fate. This celebrated battle was fought on the 9th of September 1513. The number who fell on each side was nearly equal, amounting to upwards of five thousand; but the advantage lay on the side of the English, who lost only persons of small note;

whereas the Scots had to lament the slaughter of their king and the flower of their nobility.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded James III.? What hostile measures did the English pursue? What admiral distinguished himself at this time? How did Henry act on hearing of Wood's victory? What success attended Stephen Bull?

2. Who conducted the government at this time? By whom were they opposed?

3. When did the king call a parliament? To whom did James give two of his nieces in marriage?

4. How did he receive and treat Perkin Warbeck the impostor? What occurred in consequence of James' kindness to him? What became of Perkin?

5. To whom was James married? What expedition did he wish to undertake?

6. Why did he engage in a war against the English? What advice did the nobles give the king?

7. When was the battle of Flodden fought? What was the number of the English? By what means was the Scottish army thrown into disorder? How did the divisions under the king and Bothwell behave? What number fell on each side? What became of James?

SECTION XV.

1. JAMES V., then in his second year, succeeded his father. During his minority, the queen-dowager was appointed regent, in consequence of the will left by her husband, although it was contrary to the Scottish law. But she soon lost this authority by marrying Archibald, earl of Angus. In order to procure peace during her administration, she wrote to her brother Henry not to molest or attack his young nephew. To this request he nobly replied, "That with peaceable Scots he would cultivate peace, but make war with such as came armed against him."

2. After the queen's marriage, John, duke of Albany, was elected regent, who arrived from France on the 20th of May 1515. Hepburn, abbot of St Andrews, immediately insinuated himself into the good graces of this noble person, and took advantage of the opportunity thereby afforded him to calumniate the Earls of Angus and Home. The regent, reposing belief in his assertions, treated these noblemen with marked coldness and disrespect; on which account they resolved to transport her majesty and son to England. To prevent this, Albany seized her at Stirling, and removing her thence to the castle of Edinburgh, appointed Erskine the governor, with three trusty noblemen, to preside over the education of the young king. This measure disgusted Margaret, who fled with her husband to the court of Henry, where they were kindly received. The Earl of Home was summoned to appear before the parliament on the 12th of June 1516; but failing to do so, troops were sent to secure his person, upon

which he immediately surrendered. The regent committed him to the care of the Earl of Arran, whom he soon persuaded to join him in rebellion; in consequence of which both were suddenly apprehended at Glasgow, though they were speedily pardoned; but Home, falling under suspicion of being engaged in new intrigues, was again tried, and at length beheaded.

3. The Duke of Albany having resolved to embark for France, intrusted the government of affairs during his absence to the Earls of Angus, Arran, Argyll, and Huntly, the Archbishops of St Andrews and Glasgow, and Anthony D'Arcy, a Frenchman, who was soon after slain in endeavouring to quell a tumult. Arran, being appointed president in the room of D'Arcy, wrote to the regent, requesting his return; whereupon Beaton, the chancellor, suspecting the ambition of Angus, advised the nobles assembled in Edinburgh to seize him; but he, learning their intention, rushed into the streets at the head of his armed followers, and drove his ^{1521.} } opponents from the town. The duke had no sooner come back than, in order to put an end to these commotions, he banished the refractory earl, who, in his turn, sought revenge by persuading Henry that Albany entertained the design of marrying the queen, murdering the prince, and ascending the throne. That monarch accordingly declared war, and the regent levied an army, with which he meant to anticipate his movements by an invasion of the northern counties; but the nobles refusing to set foot on English ground, he disbanded his forces, and returned to France. The Earl of Surrey accordingly passed the marches, and ravaged the country without opposition.

4. With a view to reduce the influence of France in the dominions of his nephew, Henry employed all his address to prevail upon the leading men to co-operate with him for the same object. But his designs were frustrated by the arrival of the regent in the isle of Arran with three thousand foot and one thousand cuirassiers, having escaped the enemy's fleet, which was sent out to intercept him. As soon as he landed, he summoned the nobles, praised their constancy and prudence during his absence; and at the same time urged them to engage in hostilities against England. He then collected his forces, and marched to the borders; but all his eloquence could not persuade the chiefs to advance; and, after endeavouring in vain, with his French troops, to storm the castle of Werk, he was forced to retreat.

5. Early in 1522, Albany informed the nobles of the necessity of his again visiting France: giving orders that

the king should remain in Stirling; that they should make no peace or truce with England; and above all, that they should not introduce any change into the government. But, notwithstanding these injunctions, he had hardly set sail when the restless spirit of the aristocracy again broke out; on which the prince, instigated by his mother and the Earls of Arran, Lennox, and Crawford, proceeded to Edinburgh, and assembled the nobles, by whose advice he took on himself the direction of affairs, causing them all again to swear allegiance. At first, the queen and Earl of Arran assisted the young monarch in the discharge of his public duty; but, finding a party in opposition to them, they retired to the castle for safety, when the others chose the Earls of Angus, Lennox, and Argyll, as the guardians of the king. In consequence of this measure, her majesty and Arran immediately surrendered the power which they had assumed.

6. Douglas afterwards endeavoured to get the whole influence of the state into his own hands, and thereby so disgusted Lennox and Argyll, that they resigned the office of guardian. Soon afterwards, Angus conducted the king to Jedburgh, when Scott of Buccleuch attempted to carry him off; but, failing in his endeavours, he retired with a severe wound, and a considerable loss among his followers. After great exertions, the Earl of Lennox formed a party at Stirling, to rescue their sovereign from personal restraint. On hearing of this, Douglas immediately marched in that direction, in the company of his royal ward, who, feigning indisposition, did all in his power to retard his progress. Finding flattery in vain, Sir George Douglas, brother to the earl, assumed a different tone, and addressed his majesty in the following words:—"Sir, rather than our enemies shall take you from us, we will keep hold of your body, though it should be rent in pieces!" These words made so deep an impression on the king's mind that he never afterwards forgot them. On the meeting of the two parties near Linlithgow, a battle ensued, in which the Earl of Lennox was killed, and his followers routed; after which the power of Angus was greatly increased, as he now had the sovereign entirely in his power.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded James IV.? Who was appointed regent during the king's minority? Why did she lose her office?

2. Who was elected regent in her stead? In what manner did the Abbot of St Andrews act? How did the Duke of Albany treat the Earls of Angus and Home? What became of the queen and her husband?

3. Whom did the regent intrust with the management of public affairs during his absence in France? What measures did he pursue after his return home?

4. What plan did Henry form to reduce the French influence in Scotland? What number of troops did the regent bring from France?

5. What instructions did he give the nobles on his departure to France? How did the young king and the nobles act? Who were chosen guardians of the king? How did the queen and the Earl of Arran act?

6. What measures did the parties of Douglas and Lennox adopt? What took place at the meeting of the two parties?

SECTION XVI.

1. THE king escaped at length from the power of the Douglasses, and, watching an opportunity, fled in June 1528 from Falkland to Stirling Castle, where he summoned his nobles to meet him, and obtain a redress of their grievances. At the ensuing parliament all the family of Angus were deprived of their places, condemned as enemies of the state, and had their property confiscated; upon which they left the country, and fled to England. About this time severity was employed against the protestants; by which the pope was so much gratified, that he conferred upon his majesty the tithes of all the parsonages in his dominions for three years.

2. With a view to stop the incursions of the English, the king appointed his brother, the Earl of Murray, vicegerent; and, dividing the kingdom into four parts, the inhabitants of each were ordered to send into the field their ablest men with provisions for forty days. In consequence of this plan, they were not only checked, but being incessantly harassed, were glad to obtain peace through the mediation of France. Upon the conclusion of the treaty, Henry proposed an interview with James, that they might consult together for their mutual benefit; but the priests, greatly alarmed lest the principles of the Reformation should thereby receive countenance, employed the Archbishop of St Andrews and the Bishop of Dunkeld to use every argument to prevent their sovereign from complying with the request. Listening to these suggestions, he declined meeting his uncle, and thereby enraged him to such a degree as nearly to provoke a rupture between the two nations.

3. James now made a voyage to France, where he married, on the 1st January 1537, the Princess Magdalene; but having soon after lost her by death, he espoused Mary of the house of Guise, at St Andrews, in June 1538. About this period, also, Lady Glammis, sister of the Earl of Angus, with her husband, son, and an old priest, was accused of a design to destroy the king by poison or by witchcraft; and although they were supposed to be innocent (their accuser,

John Lyons, afterwards confessing the falsehood of his charge), yet they all suffered death.

4. The following year, the queen was safely delivered of two sons, which occasioned great rejoicings throughout the country. Henry once more requested an interview with his nephew at York; but the ecclesiastics again employed every expedient to prevent it; and at length prevailed on their royal master to appoint James Hamilton, natural brother of the Earl of Arran, as judge on the trial of heretics,—a man whose constitutional ferocity was well adapted to this office. But he did not long exercise it; for being soon afterwards accused of treason, he was condemned and beheaded. After this event the king was observed to become jealous, melancholy, and superstitious; he is said to have been also much troubled with dreams, in one of which he thought Hamilton rushed on him with a sword, cut off his right hand, then his left, threatening shortly to return and despatch him. Upon awaking, he received intelligence of the death of his two children at the same time; one of them at St Andrews, the other at Stirling.

5. The English, under the Duke of Norfolk, having invaded Scotland, James immediately levied an army of thirty thousand men, appointed the Earl of Murray general, and marching with them to the borders, had the satisfaction to see the enemy retire. Desirous of revenge, he wished to pursue them, but the nobles refused; on which he gave way to an unseasonable fit of passion, denouncing them as cowards and as altogether unworthy of their ancestors. Lord Maxwell, anxious to appease him, offered to advance with ten thousand men, which proposal he most readily accepted. Disgusted, however, at the refractory spirit of the chiefs, he deprived his lordship of the command, and conferred it on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army, filled with indignation, refused to act under him; and at this critical moment five hundred English horse, perceiving their confusion, boldly attacked them, when the whole were seized with a panic and fled. Few indeed were killed, but a great many were taken prisoners, among whom were the Earls of Cassillis and Glencairn, the Lords Maxwell, Fleming, Somerville, Oliphant, and Gray. On hearing of this disaster, James was reduced to a state of the greatest distress. Rage, shame, regret, and apprehension, so wrought upon him that he would admit of no consolation; and hearing that his queen was delivered of a daughter, he exclaimed,—“The crown came with a woman, and it will go with one; many miseries await this poor king-

dom ; Henry will make it his own either by force of arms or by marriage !” Shortly after, on the 16th of December 1542, he expired in the flower of his age,—a prince of considerable talents, and well fitted by his personal courage for repressing those disorders to which his country was so much exposed.

6. During this reign the Reformation began to dawn in Scotland. But the event which attracted the largest share of public attention was the martyrdom of Patrick Hamilton, a youth related to the royal family ; who, being sent abroad for his education, became acquainted with some foreign divines, imbibed their doctrines, and on his return laboured to propagate them among his own countrymen. He is said to have been entrapped by Campbell, prior of the Dominicans, who, pretending to be a convert, had gained his confidence. At all events, he was tried at St Andrews for heresy, and burned the same day.

EXERCISES.

1. What measures did the king pursue on escaping from Douglas ? How did he ingratiate himself with the pope ?

2. What measures did the king adopt to prevent the incursions of the English ? What followed on the conclusion of peace ?

3. What princess did James marry ? What took place after his marriage ?

4. What agreeable event next succeeded ? Where did Henry request an interview with James ? How was it prevented ? What cruel policy did James adopt ? What became of Hamilton, whom he employed to persecute the protestants ? Where did the king's two sons die ?

5. By whom was Scotland invaded at this time ? What defensive measures did James adopt ? What offence did the nobles give to the king ? What were the unhappy consequences ? What nobles were taken prisoners by the English ? What became of James ? What was his character ?

6. When did the Reformation in Scotland commence ? Who was the most eminent of the first martyrs ? What was the punishment inflicted on Hamilton ?

PERIOD IV.

SECTION I.

1. JAMES V. was succeeded by his daughter Mary, an infant of seven days old. Cardinal Beaton is accused of fabricating a will, in which the king was represented to have named him regent ; but the forgery being discovered, the Douglasses (who had returned from England) and other chiefs immediately raised to that honour James Hamilton, earl of Arran. The fears and vigilance of the clergy appeared from a paper found in the royal cabinet, containing the names of three hundred of the principal nobility marked out as heretics ; the Earl of Arran being first in the list.

2. Henry VIII. now proposed a match between his son and the Princess Mary, which was agreed to by the whole

parliament. The happy effects of this proposal were immediately felt; commerce, so long destroyed by war, began to flourish; and all the seaports were active in fitting out ships, many of which now traded to England. The cardinal, however, having discovered that Henry meditated not only a matrimonial alliance, but also to possess himself of the government of Scotland, soon put a stop to the negotiation, and gained over to his party a majority of the nobles, who refused to deliver the hostages required by the treaty. He also prevailed on those who had been taken prisoners at the battle of Solway, and liberated on their parole, to violate the promise to which they had pledged their honour. Accordingly, on being summoned to repair to London, they all refused.

3. The English monarch was so exasperated at this conduct on the part of the Scottish peers, that in 1543 he declared war against their country, and seized all their shipping in his kingdom; on which account the cardinal wrote to France, craving assistance, and requesting that Matthew Stuart, earl of Lennox, might be sent home to counteract the policy of the regent. The earl accordingly arrived, and was kindly received by Arran, after which he visited Beaton and the queen-dowager at Linlithgow, where he made known his designs to his friends. In order to support his declining power, the regent proposed an accommodation; which being accepted, the princess was removed to Stirling, to be educated under the direction of the following individuals, all men of rank, namely, William Graham, John Erskine, John Lindsay, and William Livingston. After this coalition, Arran devoted himself entirely to the views of the primate, and publicly abjured the doctrine of the reformers. His apostasy, however, was no great loss to the protestant interest, which had already taken such deep root that no severity could extirpate it; whilst the piety, patience, and fortitude of the martyrs only tended to increase the number of its adherents.

4. The Earl of Lennox, finding himself deceived by the artifices of Beaton, withdrew from court, and declared for the opposite party, who, with open arms, received a convert who added so much lustre to their name. He immediately raised a numerous army, and by a sudden march to Edinburgh surprised both the regent and cardinal. From this dangerous situation the latter found means to extricate himself by amusing his opponent with a treaty which he artfully protracted till his own forces increased and those of the earl diminished. Perceiving this, the prelate suddenly attacked his rival, part of whose troops were cut to pieces, and the rest dispersed. Soon after, the English landed near Leith, and,

after burning it, together with a considerable part of the metropolis, plundered the adjacent country, and returned home. Lennox still continued to disturb the administration; but proving unsuccessful, he fled to Henry, who gave to him in marriage Lady Margaret Douglas, daughter of the Earl of Angus and of the widow of James IV. The history of this illustrious exile is somewhat singular:—He was destined to be the father of a race of kings; he saw his son mount the throne of Scotland; and his posterity have swayed the sceptre in two kingdoms, by one of which he was cast out as a criminal, and by the other received as a fugitive.

5. The cardinal did not use his power with a moderation equal to the policy by which he had obtained it; his resentment against one party of the nobles, his insolence towards the rest, his severity to the reformers, and, above all, his barbarous execution of George Wishart, a person of honourable birth and primitive sanctity, precipitated his ruin. This gentleman, celebrated for the purity of his morals and his extensive learning, exercised the pastoral office in the town of Dundee, where he preached with zeal against the Romish superstitions, for which he was expelled by the magistrates. Shortly after this occurrence a plague broke out in the town, upon which they recalled him; but his great qualifications alarmed Beaton, who resolved by his punishment to strike the reformers with terror. He accordingly employed the Earl of Bothwell to arrest him, who, contrary to a solemn promise, conducted him to St Andrews, where he was tried and condemned to the flames. The cardinal is said to have enjoyed from his window the dismal spectacle. Wishart suffered with Christian meekness and fortitude; but, remarking the triumph of his insulting enemy, foretold that in a short time he should, in the very same place, lie as low as he was now exalted in opposition to true religion.

6. Soon after this cruel execution, Norman Leslie, the eldest son of the Earl of Rothes, whom the cardinal had treated with injustice, formed, with sixteen other persons, a conspiracy against him, which they conducted with the greatest secrecy and success. Early in the morning of the 29th of May 1546, they gained possession of his castle, which he had strongly fortified; and turning out one hundred and fifty tradesmen and servants, they shut the gates, and proceeded deliberately to execute their purpose. On hearing the noise, the primate, in a state of alarm, instantly rose and barricaded the door of his chamber; but finding they had brought fire to force their way, he gave them admittance, and, reminding them that he was a priest, conjured them to

spare his life. Two of their number immediately rushed upon him with drawn swords; but James Melville checked their impetuosity by a solemn statement, that as this sacrifice was the work and judgment of God, it ought to be executed with becoming deliberation and gravity. He then turned the point of his weapon towards Beaton and thus addressed him:—"Repent thee, thou wicked cardinal, of all thy sins and iniquities, especially of the murder of Wishart, that instrument of God for the conversion of these lands. It is his death which now cries for vengeance upon thee. We are sent by God to inflict the deserved punishment. For here, before the Almighty, I protest, that it is neither hatred of thy person, nor love of thy riches, nor fear of thy power, which moves me to seek thy death, but only because thou hast been, and still remainest, an obstinate enemy to Christ Jesus and his holy Gospel." Having spoken these words, he thrust the prelate through the body, who fell dead at his feet.

7. The death of Beaton proved fatal to the catholic religion and the French interest in Scotland. The conspirators, being re-enforced by Knox and other friends to the number of a hundred and fifty, prepared for the defence of the castle, and sent to crave aid from Henry VIII. In the meantime, the regent, though secretly pleased to get rid of a rival who had eclipsed him, in order to gratify the queen-dowager and the King of France, laid siege to the stronghold, of which Leslie and his followers had taken possession. They defended themselves with great bravery five months, at the expiration of which they surrendered to the French general, who had come to Arran's assistance, and who solemnly engaged for the security of their lives.

8. John Hamilton, abbot of Paisley, succeeded as archbishop of St Andrews; after which the Duke of Somerset, who, upon the death of his sovereign, had been appointed protector, entered Scotland at the head of eighteen thousand men, to carry off the young queen, and unite the crowns of the two kingdoms. The regent was prepared for his reception, and, with a numerous army, lay encamped on very advantageous ground at Pinkey, near Musselburgh; but in the day of battle, the national impetuosity of his troops gave an easy victory to the English, whilst it precipitated their own country into the utmost danger. The duke, on reconnoitring the position of the Scots, found that an attack could not be made with safety, and ordered his men to fall back. On perceiving this movement, the regent, afraid lest the invaders should escape, descended from his strong position into the plain. Angus commanded the vanguard, Arran the main body, and Huntly

the rear, having a few light horse on their left flank, strengthened by some Irish archers. While they were advancing, the English ships in the bay galled them with their shot; whereby the light troops were thrown into disorder, and compelled to give way. On perceiving this, Lord Grey, who commanded the horse, made a charge upon the infantry; but as they were received on the point of the Scottish spears, which were longer than their own lances, they were in a moment overthrown, and their leader himself dangerously wounded. In this critical juncture, Somerset exerted himself with success in rallying the cavalry, and at the same time ordered his main body to ply the foot with musket-shot. His archers meanwhile poured in a shower of arrows; the ships still assailed them in flank; the artillery from a height infested them in front; and the reserve advanced leisurely and in good order to attack them. Dismayed by all these circumstances, the first line began to retire from the conflict. Their retreat, however, which was at first orderly, soon changed into a flight: the panic of the van communicated itself to the main body, and, passing thence to the rear, rendered the whole field of battle a scene of confusion, flight, and consternation. In this action, fought on 10th September 1547, ten thousand Scots were slain, and fifteen hundred taken prisoners, while only two hundred fell on the side of their enemy.

9. This defeat, instead of reconciling the vanquished to the policy of England, rendered them more averse than ever to a union with that country. Somerset, after seizing a few small castles, wasting the fields, and fortifying Haddington, returned home. Meanwhile the queen-dowager, taking advantage of the national resentment, resolved to promote the interests of France; and, as all eyes were turned thither for assistance, she represented to the nobles that they could not expect the king to take part in their quarrel without some extraordinary concessions in his favour. In consequence of this representation, added to the violence of their hatred against England, they offered their young queen in marriage to the dauphin, and proposed to send her immediately to be educated at his father's court. To this proposal the latter acceded without hesitation, and immediately despatched six thousand veteran soldiers under the command of General Dessé; but these, as the Protector took care to act solely on the defensive, performed no exploit which could have the smallest effect in determining the issue of the war. On this occasion the French monarch displayed his generosity, by granting a yearly pension of twelve thousand livres to the regent, with the title of Duke of Chatelherault. The fatal resolution of the

Scots, in sending their young princess abroad, proved afterwards the source of many calamities to themselves and to their sovereign; as Mary, when only six years of age, was placed in a scene, where she acquired indeed every accomplishment that could add to her charms as a woman, but contracted prejudices which occasioned the greatest misfortunes to her as a queen.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded James V. ? Whom did the nobles appoint regent ?
2. What proposal did Henry of England make ? What were the consequences of it ? How and by whom were the prosperity and tranquillity of Scotland disturbed ?
3. What measures did Henry adopt on the refusal of the Scottish nobles to repair to London ? Who came over from France as a rival to the regent ? Who superintended the education of the young queen ?
4. What course did Lennox pursue to be avenged on Beaton and the regent ? How did Beaton extricate himself, and retaliate on Lennox ? What important event succeeded ? Whom did Lennox afterwards marry ?
5. Whom did Cardinal Beaton oppress by abusing his power ? Whom did he cause to be burnt at the stake ? What was the character of Wishart ? What prophecy did he utter at his death ?
6. Who formed a conspiracy against the cardinal ? How and by whom was he slain ?
7. What effects did the cardinal's death produce ? What became of the conspirators against him ?
8. Who succeeded the cardinal as archbishop ? Who invaded Scotland at this period ? Of what imprudence were the Scots guilty ? Who commanded the English horse ? What number of the Scots fell at the battle of Pinkey ?
9. What agreement did the nobles make with the French king ? What were the consequences of this agreement ?

SECTION II.

1550. 1. THE French king did not conclude peace with the English, before he obliged them to renounce every pretension to a treaty of marriage with the Queen of Scots; after which his troops returned home, as much to their own satisfaction as to that of the nation which they had come to assist.

2. In the meantime, the reformed religion continued to flourish, and many men of talents and learning became converts to it, whom Mary of Guise, the queen-dowager, by her gentle disposition and promises of protection, brought completely over to her interest. Taking advantage of this influence, as well as of Arran's timidity, she at length, partly by flattery, partly by threats, obtained his consent to a voluntary surrender of the supreme power. She soon found herself raised to that dignity, which had long been the object of her ardent desire; for, in a parliament held on the 10th of April 1554, she was chosen regent. On her elevation, however, she did not continue to act with the prudence and moderation which were expected from her character, but disgusted the

higher orders, by bestowing upon foreigners offices of trust and emolument, and by proposing a tax for the maintenance of a body of regular troops. She next endeavoured to excite a war with England, and even instructed her French auxiliaries to commence offensive operations; but not being able, either by entreaties or artifices, to prevail on the nobles to depart from their pacific system, she was obliged to dismiss her army.

3. In 1558, the parliament appointed a deputation of its members,—the Archbishop of Glasgow, the Bishops of Ross and Orkney, the Earls of Rothes and Cassillis, Lords Fleming and Seton, the Prior of St Andrews, and John Erskine of Dun,—to assist at the ceremony of the young queen's marriage with the dauphin, and also to settle the terms of the contract. They employed every precaution to secure the dignity of their sovereign and the liberty of their country; deeds which Mary herself, her husband, and the King of France, ratified with the most solemn oaths, and confirmed under their own seals. But notwithstanding all these stipulations, this solemnity only led to one continued scene of elaborate deceit. The queen had previously been persuaded to sign a document, equally unjust and invalid, conferring her kingdom in free gift upon the crown of France, failing heirs of her own body. This perfidious project was conducted by the Duke of Guise, keeper of the great seal, and the Cardinal Lorraine, who shamefully took advantage of her youth, simplicity, and inexperience. Not content with carrying this dishonourable measure, the French court insisted that, as the dauphin enjoyed the title of King of Scotland, the crown matrimonial should be conferred upon him, vesting in his own person the rights which belonged to his wife as a sovereign princess; and the address of the queen-dowager, seconded by the numerous adherents of the Reformation, prevailed upon the parliament to comply with this demand.

4. The peaceable and regular demeanour of the protestants at this period was truly astonishing. Though irritated by the most cruel excesses of ecclesiastical tyranny for more than thirty years, they committed no violation of public order, nor in any one instance transgressed those bounds of duty which the law prescribed. They now, however, resolved to petition the legislature for some legal protection; but the queen-regent, dreading the effects of a debate on so delicate a subject, prevailed with the leaders, by new and solemn promises, to defer their claim till a more suitable occasion. Some time afterwards, they applied to a convocation of popish clergy, where all their demands were rejected with contempt.

5. On the death of the English queen, in November 1558,

Henry of France persuaded his son and daughter-in-law to assume the title of king and queen of England,—a step which afterwards proved the source of much misery to the unfortunate Mary. As the princes of Lorraine also wished to support the catholic interest in Scotland, they determined on a persecution of the protestants in that country. Accordingly the necessary orders were sent to the queen-regent; which, as she unhappily complied with them (contrary to her own judgment), raised commotions that ended in the ruin of the French power and of the popish religion in the kingdom over which she presided. Agreeably to the instructions she had received, she boldly avowed to the leaders of the Reformation her determination to extirpate their creed; and, notwithstanding her former promises, commanded all the protestant preachers in the kingdom to be summoned to a court of justice at Stirling. The ministers accordingly attended with a great number of their adherents; upon which, dreading the consequences of an interview with them, she sent John Erskine of Dun, a gentleman of eminent authority, to promise in her name that she would put a stop to the prosecution, if they would peaceably return home. The protestants listened with pleasure to this pacific proposal, and complied with her request; when, notwithstanding this solemn assurance, on the day appointed she called to trial the persons who had been summoned, and, on their non-appearance, pronounced them outlaws. Shocked at this breach of faith, and alarmed at the danger which threatened them, they boldly prepared for their own defence. Erskine himself joined them, and they were stimulated by the powerful rhetoric of Knox, their bold and popular leader, who had been recalled from Geneva to assist his countrymen at this critical juncture.

6. Immediately on his arrival, the great reformer hastened to Perth to share the common danger, where, on the 11th of May 1559, he delivered from the pulpit a vehement discourse against idolatry, by which he inflamed the minds of his audience with the highest religious zeal. After this address, a priest being so imprudent as to open his repository of images and relics, and make preparations for saying mass, the multitude immediately attacked him, scattered his implements of superstition, and then, proceeding with tumultuary but irresistible force, fell upon the churches and monasteries, overturned the altars, defaced the pictures, broke in pieces the statues, and laid those sumptuous fabrics level with the ground. On learning these proceedings the regent was filled with rage, and endeavoured, with an army of seven thousand men, to surprise the protestant leaders; but finding them prepared, and

rendered formidable both by their zeal and numbers, she sent the Earl of Argyll and Prior of St Andrews, who concluded a treaty with them. No sooner, however, were their followers dismissed, than she broke every article of it; upon which these noblemen, finding that faith and honour were no longer regarded, deserted her interests, and immediately raised a body of men to maintain their religious liberties by force of arms.

7. The regent endeavoured to extricate herself from the danger which threatened her by again having recourse to negotiation; but the protestants being inspired with an ardent love of liberty, as well as zeal for religious reformation, demanded at once the redress of their ecclesiastical grievances, and also the expulsion of foreign troops from Scotland. With these demands, however, Mary artfully avoided compliance, declaring that she could not do it without the concurrence of the French king, which, she said, she would endeavour to obtain; agreeing in the meantime to a cessation of arms for eight days, and promising to send to their head-quarters certain persons duly qualified to determine on the points at issue. She did not, however, fulfil any part of this agreement; upon which the reformers resumed arms with increased resentment, and, taking the towns of Perth, Stirling, and Edinburgh, destroyed most of the churches and monasteries. The leaders hoped, by these means, to render it impossible ever to restore these nurseries of idleness, or to reassemble their inhabitants, whom they every where dispersed; but not a single Roman Catholic suffered death, and only a few were exposed to insult.

8. The protestants now determined to establish their faith on the ruins of popery; for which purpose they fixed their chief residence in the metropolis, and appointed Knox and other ministers to fill the pulpits. This state of affairs, however, was soon interrupted, as the regent, understanding that their forces had retired, marched suddenly from Dunbar in the night, and, appearing with her troops under the walls of the capital, filled the inhabitants with consternation. At length a truce was concluded for six months, upon which the reformers abandoned the city; the queen-dowager promising not to molest the preachers, but permit the free and public exercise of their religion.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the conditions on which the French king agreed to make peace with the English? What was the consequence of concluding a peace?
2. What was the state of the reformed religion in Scotland at this period? How did Mary of Guise, the queen-dowager, treat the leaders of the Reformation? When was she chosen regent? How did she act in that capacity?

3. Who were chosen to arrange the queen's contract of marriage with the Dauphin of France? Of what perfidy was the court of France guilty?

4. What was remarkable in the conduct of the protestants? Did they obtain a redress of their grievances?

5. What advice did the King of France give to the young queen and her husband? Who planned the persecution of the protestants? What measures did the queen-regent adopt for carrying the persecution into effect? Did she fulfil her promises to the protestants? What was the consequence of her breaking faith with them? What was the character of John Knox?

6. What took place after his discourse at Perth? How did the queen-regent now act towards the protestants? What measures did their leaders pursue?

7. How did the queen-regent temporize with and deceive the protestants? What towns did they take?

8. Who obliged them to leave Edinburgh? What truce was now granted them?

SECTION III.

1559. 1. JAMES STUART, prior of St Andrews, natural son of James V., a man possessed of great military skill, actuated by much personal ambition, and evincing great caution as well as political discernment, was the person who moved the whole body of the protestants. They were also joined at this time by the Duke of Chatelherault, and his son, the Earl of Arran, who had narrowly escaped persecution in France.

2. The regent, however, at the same period, received a reinforcement of one thousand French soldiers, whom she instantly employed in fortifying Leith, whence she had expelled a great part of the inhabitants. She likewise took possession of St Giles's church, and, contrary to the articles of her truce with the protestants, re-established the rites of the Romish religion. When the lords of the congregation represented to her the alarming dangers arising from measures so very violent, she coolly replied, that she was not accountable to them for her conduct; that she would neither dismiss any forces nor demolish any fortifications which she might find useful; and ordered them, on pain of treason, to disband their armed followers. After this interview, the patriotic leaders immediately assembled all the peers, barons, and representatives of the boroughs who adhered to them, and submitted the regent's letter to their consideration. After a mature discussion of its contents, they passed a vote unanimously depriving her of the government, which she had exercised so much to the detriment of the kingdom. They farther resolved to besiege Leith, into which she had retired; but, from want of skill in the art of war, they were unable to reduce it, and thereby occasioned murmurs among their own party and a daily diminution of their numbers.

3. In this emergency, they applied to Elizabeth, now on the English throne, who gave them money to carry on their

operations, and sent Randolph, her ambassador, to observe and animate their motions. At this time, frequent skirmishes took place between the forces of the congregation and the French troops, which generally terminated in favour of the latter; so that the army of the lords became greatly discouraged, and, contrary to the remonstrances of the Prior of St Andrews, retreated towards Stirling.—William Maitland of Lethington, principal secretary to the regent, having, from zeal for the reformed religion, resisted her unconstitutional proceedings, and thus exposed himself to her resentment, fled to the disaffected party, and, by his eminent talents, added strength to their cause. He was immediately sent as ambassador to implore the aid of the English queen, who promised to forward without delay the most effectual assistance. Maitland immediately communicated to his employers the successful result of his embassy, and desired them to appoint commissioners to conclude the treaty, and settle the future plan of the campaign.

4. On learning these proceedings, the regent resolved to attack the confederates before their allies could arrive; and accordingly ordered a strong party of French to march to Stirling, who plundered and destroyed the estates of the protestants.—In the meantime, the Prior of St Andrews, Lord Ruthven, and Kirkcaldy of Grange, having assembled a body of six hundred horse, annoyed the enemy by incessant attacks, beat up their quarters, intercepted their provisions, and cut off their straggling parties; so that for three weeks they could not advance. At length, on the 15th of January 1560, the appearance of the English fleet in the Firth put a stop to the proceedings of the French, who immediately returned to Leith, harassed and exhausted by fatigue.

5. In the previous year, the Scottish and English commissioners had concluded a treaty at Berwick, in which the former engaged never to allow a closer union of their country with France, while Elizabeth in return promised to employ a powerful army in their defence. Accordingly, the following spring, she sent six thousand foot and two thousand horse, under Lord Grey, who, being joined by great numbers of the congregation, immediately marched towards Leith and invested it. The regent, afraid of being taken prisoner, retired to the castle of Edinburgh, where she soon afterwards died. She was a princess of acute discernment and great address; of wonderful intrepidity and equal prudence; gentle and humane without weakness. But, in respect of religion, she was a determined zealot; and all her great qualities were poisoned by her attachment to her brothers, the princes

of Lorraine, to gratify whom she departed from every maxim which her own wisdom would have approved. Previous to her death she had an interview with the Prior of St Andrews, the Earl of Argyle, and other chiefs of the congregation, to whom she lamented the fatal issue of those violent counsels she had been obliged to follow; confessed the errors of her administration; and begged forgiveness of those whom she had in any respect injured.

6. Meanwhile, the French garrison in Leith defended themselves with great bravery against the united forces of Scotland and England, till provisions began to fail. From this disagreeable state they were at length relieved by a treaty of peace, which was concluded at Edinburgh on the 5th of July 1560, between the plenipotentiaries of their own king and those of Queen Elizabeth. During this negotiation, the right of the latter to her crown was distinctly acknowledged; Francis and Mary solemnly engaged never thereafter to assume the titles belonging to the English sovereign; and, on the other hand, the French forces in Scotland were to be immediately withdrawn. It was also stipulated that an act of oblivion should be ratified by the king and queen; that a parliament should be called for redress of grievances; and that, during her majesty's absence, the administration should be vested in twelve persons, seven of whom were to be chosen by her, and five by the estates of the kingdom.

7. About this period the Scottish parliament approved of the reformed Confession of Faith; abolished the authority of ecclesiastical courts; and prohibited the exercise of religious worship according to the rites of the Romish church,—after which Sir James Sandilands of Calder, prior of St John, was appointed ambassador to lay these proceedings before the king and queen, by whom he was treated with the utmost coldness, and dismissed without obtaining a ratification. The Earls of Morton and Glencairn, and Maitland of Lethington, were at the same time chosen envoys to wait on Queen Elizabeth, from whom they obtained a very gracious reception; although she politely declined to comply with their wishes as to one object of their mission, a matrimonial union with the Earl of Arran. In 1560, the protestant church in Scotland began to assume a more regular form: the first General Assembly was held on the 20th of December; and a book of Discipline was composed by Knox, which was presented to the convention of estates for their approbation.

8. On the 5th of December 1560, Mary's husband, Francis II., died,—an event which, dissolving the only bond of union that remained between Scotland and France, was a source of joy

to the greater part of her native subjects. The convention immediately appointed the Prior of St Andrews to go to Paris, and invite the queen to return to her own country, in order to assume the reins of government. She received the prior with confidence and affection; and, influenced by the impatience of her people, the persuasion of her uncles, and the studied neglect of the queen-mother, she was easily induced to prepare for the voyage.—Having applied to Elizabeth for a safe conduct, and being refused it, she felt considerable indignation at this ungenerous conduct, but was not prevented from embarking at Calais, to which place she was escorted with all the dignity suitable to the queen of two powerful kingdoms. She left France with feelings of the utmost regret. After embarking, she kept her eyes fixed on the coast, and never turned them from it till darkness concealed it from her view. She then ordered a couch to be spread for her on the deck, and the weather proving calm, in the morning she still saw the distant coast, and exclaimed,—“Farewell, France! farewell, beloved country, I shall never see thee more!” After passing in a mist the English fleet, which had been sent to intercept her, she arrived at Leith on the 19th of August 1561, after an absence of thirteen years, and was received by her subjects with every demonstration of joy.

EXERCISES.

1. Who was the principal leader of the protestant party? What noblemen joined them at this period?
2. What reinforcement did the regent receive from France? How did she act at this time? What answer did she give the protestant lords? How did they act in consequence of it?
3. To whom did they now apply for assistance? What were the consequences of the skirmishes which took place between them and the queen's troops? Who deserted from the queen-regent? How and with what success did the protestant lords employ him?
4. How did the queen-regent now treat the protestants? What opposition did they make to her measures? Who came to their assistance at this time?
5. Where was a treaty concluded with Elizabeth? What were its conditions? What became of the queen-regent after the conclusion of this treaty? What was her character? What took place previous to her death?
6. What happened soon after her decease? What were the terms of peace betwixt the Scots and French on the one hand, and the English on the other?
7. What were the proceedings of parliament? When was the first General Assembly held?
8. When did young Queen Mary's husband die? What was the effect of his death? What steps did the convention now take? When did Mary arrive in Scotland?

SECTION IV.

1. UPON the arrival of the queen, the Prior of St Andrews obtained for her and her domestics the undisturbed exercise of the catholic rites; and, by this complaisance, so far gained

her good-will to the protestant lords, that she issued a proclamation, declaring any attempt to alter or subvert their religion a capital crime. She committed the administration of public affairs to the prior her brother, and Maitland of Lethington, and formed her whole council of protestant members, not a single papist being admitted to any place of confidence. Desirous also to settle amicably her difference with Elizabeth, she expressed her willingness to disclaim all right to the crown of England during the life of her cousin, or the lives of her posterity, upon condition of being declared by act of parliament next heir in failure of these. But to this proposal the latter would not listen, as she entertained a mortal aversion to the Scottish queen. Shortly after her arrival, Mary appointed the Prior of St Andrews her lieutenant, to restore the regular administration of justice, and to reform the internal police of the country,—offices which he executed with such vigour and prudence as greatly to increase his popularity.

2. The General Assembly, at their second meeting, presented a petition to the legislature, praying that provision might be made for the maintenance of the protestant clergy; in consequence of which the parliament annexed one-third of all ecclesiastical benefices to the crown, out of which the queen undertook to provide for them. She accordingly nominated her lieutenant, with the Earls of Argyle and Morton, and Maitland of Lethington, to distribute this fund, which amounted to nearly twenty-four thousand pounds Scots; and these commissioners allowed a few of the clergy three hundred merks, as their annual income, but in general they awarded only one hundred to the officiating ministers.

3. About this time, a conspiracy against the queen's government being discovered, the Earls of Bothwell, Arran, and a few of the ringleaders were imprisoned.—Mary afterwards created the Prior of St Andrews Earl of Murray, on account of his loyal services; and also gave him the estate annexed to that dignity, which had been in the possession of Lord Huntly for many years. This step naturally incensed the dispossessed nobleman, who contrived various stratagems to undermine his rival; but these failing, he at last, in 1562, broke out into actual rebellion. Murray being sent against him with a handful of troops, attacked and routed his numerous followers, the earl himself being trodden to death in the pursuit. After this victory, his son, Sir John Gordon, was beheaded at Aberdeen, by which step the parliament reduced the power of this great family to the lowest ebb.

4. During the queen's absence in the west, some of the

populace of Edinburgh broke into her chapel, interrupted the service, and filled all present with consternation; whereupon the government caused two of the ringleaders to be seized, and appointed a day for their trial. On this occasion, Knox displayed his wonted zeal and activity by writing circular letters, requiring all who professed the true religion to assemble and assist their distressed brethren. On hearing this, the privy-council summoned the Reformer to appear before them; but he defended himself with such courage and ability, that it was found expedient to relinquish the proceedings.

5. Mary was now solicited in marriage by many of the princes in Europe; but, rejecting them all, she at length fixed her affections upon Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox, a young nobleman of weak understanding and violent passions, though in beauty and gracefulness of person he surpassed all his contemporaries. She married him on the 20th of July 1565, in opposition to the remonstrances of Elizabeth, and of a powerful party at home, headed by her brother. This nobleman, in consequence of his obstinacy on that occasion, was summoned to court, and failing to appear was pronounced an outlaw. She then set Lord Gordon at liberty, and recalled the Earls of Bothwell and Sutherland, whom she admitted into favour. The English queen interceded for Murray and his party, but without success; and Mary, raising troops, pursued them from place to place, refusing every proposal of accommodation, till at last they were reduced to the necessity of taking refuge beyond the Tweed. Elizabeth, in order to justify her conduct to the ambassadors of France and Spain, had recourse to a plan of deep hypocrisy. She made Lord Murray, and Hamilton abbot of Kilwinning, appear in their presence, and publicly deny that she had given them any encouragement to take up arms; after which she ostensibly banished them as traitors, but privately gave them every encouragement and mark of approbation.

6. In the meantime, Mary shared the dignity of the kingdom with her husband, and, by her proclamation, commanded all writs at law to be drawn out in their joint names. She also levied fines on the towns of St Andrews, Perth, and Dundee, which had been friendly to her disaffected brother; and bestowed the superiority of the town of Leith upon the magistrates of Edinburgh for a sum of money. About this time the General Assembly appointed a committee to wait upon her majesty, to request that she would embrace the protestant religion; but she replied, that neither her conscience nor her interest would permit her to take such a step.

7. In consequence of the earnest solicitations of Throgmor-

ton, the English ambassador, and many of her favourite ministers, Mary now resolved to show clemency to the exiled lords ; but was prevented from the execution of her purpose by the arrival of an ambassador from France, bringing her accounts of the league which was formed in the year 1565, between Charles IX. and the Queen of Spain, for extirpating the protestants.—To this diabolical confederacy she promised to give countenance, and determined upon the fall of Murray and the protestant religion together, when an event occurred by which both were preserved.

8. There was in the court at this time an Italian, named David Rizzio, who, having accompanied the Piedmontese ambassador to Scotland, recommended himself to the queen by his skill in music, and, being afterwards chosen her French secretary, had of late obtained a very extraordinary degree of confidence and favour. In the meanwhile, Darnley's passions and vices had entirely deprived him of his consort's affections ; when he, perceiving her marked indifference, laid the blame upon the foreigner, and entered into a conspiracy with the Earl of Morton and Lord Ruthven to destroy him. It was immediately agreed that the former, with one hundred and sixty men, should seize the gates of the palace ; and that the king, accompanied by Ruthven and his associates, should seize Rizzio in the queen's presence. Agreeably to this plan, the former, without noise or resistance, secured all the entrances ; and, whilst her majesty was at supper with the Countess of Argyle, the Italian, and a few domestics, Henry suddenly entered the apartment by a private passage, with Ruthven at his back, clad in complete armour, and followed by three or four trusty accomplices. An appearance so unusual could not fail to alarm all who were present. The unfortunate secretary apprehending that he was the victim, retired in the utmost consternation behind the queen ; upon which the earl drew his dagger, and, with a furious mien and voice, commanded him to leave a place of which he was unworthy, and which he had occupied too long. Mary employed tears, entreaties, and threatenings to save her favourite ; but, notwithstanding all these, he was torn from her by violence, and, before he could be dragged through the next apartment, the rage of his enemies put an end to his life, by piercing his body with many wounds. This deed was committed on the 9th of March 1566 ; after which, Athol, Huntly, Bothwell, and other confidants, were dismissed. In the meantime, the conspirators kept possession of the palace, guarding their sovereign with the utmost care, and taking measures to prevent any tumult in the city ; whilst Murray, Rothes, and

their followers, being informed of every circumstance, arrived at Edinburgh, where they were graciously received by the king and queen, obtained an acquittal from parliament, and were reinstated in the possession of their honours and fortunes.

EXERCISES.

1. What privilege was granted to Mary on arriving in Scotland? To whom did Mary commit the administration of public affairs?
2. What provision was made for the protestant clergy? What was the amount of their annual income?
3. By whom was a conspiracy formed against Mary's government? What reward did Mary confer upon the Prior of St Andrews? What was the consequence of Huntly's rebellion?
4. How did some of the populace of Edinburgh act in the queen's absence? What measures did the ministry pursue? In what manner did John Knox discover his zeal, and what was the consequence?
5. Whom did the queen marry? What were the consequences of Murray's opposition? How did Queen Elizabeth act at this time?
6. What rank did Mary confer upon her husband? How did the queen replenish her treasury? How did the General Assembly act towards her?
7. What resolution did Mary form relative to the exiled lords? When and by whom was the league formed for extirpating the protestants?
8. What was the general history of Rizzio? Who formed a conspiracy against him? When and how did they execute their design?

SECTION V.

1. MARY, who was filled with indignation at the murder of her favourite Rizzio, now employed all her address to disengage the king from his new associates. She at last prevailed upon him to make his escape with her to Dunbar (accompanied only by three attendants), where they arrived in safety, and were received by the Earls of Bothwell, Huntly, and several other nobles. Having raised an army of eight thousand men with the utmost activity, she proceeded to Edinburgh, whence the confederates fled to England; after which Darnley issued a proclamation, disclaiming any knowledge of the conspiracy against the Italian. This protestation, however, only tended the more to convince the queen of his guilt; and as his indulgence in every vice became more open, her aversion to him daily increased. Cold civilities, secret distrusts, and frequent quarrels between them, were the unhappy consequences; whilst, as among the men of rank, some hated, and others despised him, he was left almost alone in a neglected and untutored solitude.

2. James Hepburn, earl of Bothwell, the head of an ancient family, but a man of profligate manners, was the person in whom the queen now confided. She raised him to offices of trust, and consulted him in every matter of importance; while he, taking advantage of this influence, embraced every opportunity to obtain that complete sway over his sovereign's heart

as well as her councils which he afterwards accomplished. Her youth and great sensibility, the unworthiness of the object of her recent attachment, Bothwell's complaisance in supporting her authority, protecting her person, and soothing her passions, could not fail to animate his hopes of success.

3. On the 19th of June 1566, the queen was delivered of a son in the castle of Edinburgh; a prince whose accession to the throne of England established the power of Britain on a solid foundation. Sir James Melville was immediately despatched to announce this joyful event to Elizabeth, the news of which so deeply affected her as to draw tears from her eyes, though she accepted of Mary's invitation to stand godmother to her child.

4. In the meantime, Darnley, with a view to recover his power, addressed himself to the pope, and the kings of France and Spain, soliciting their countenance or aid; but, as his applications to them were unavailing, he at length provided a ship to leave the kingdom. The queen did every thing in her power to dissuade him from this measure; and the privy-council expostulated with him, though to little purpose, as he still remained sullen and obstinate. In these circumstances, Murray and Maitland advised her to obtain a sentence of divorce against him; but, fearing that such a step might occasion a dispute with regard to her son's succession to the throne of England, she resolutely objected to it.

5. The baptism of the prince was celebrated at Stirling with the greatest possible magnificence; after which Morton and the other conspirators against Rizzio obtained pardon, at the solicitation of Bothwell, who wished by their return to strengthen his party. In the meantime, Darnley was seized with a dangerous distemper; in consequence of which Mary prevailed upon him to remove to Edinburgh, that he might have easier access to the physicians, and that she might attend him without being absent from her son. The place chosen for his residence was a mansion called Kirk of Field, in a retired and solitary situation, where his consort waited upon him with the most assiduous care, seldom being absent either day or night. This attention on her part, however, was not of long continuance; for, on the 9th of February 1567, she left his lodging at eleven at night, to be present at a masquerade in the palace. At two next morning the house was blown up, and the dead body of the king found in an adjoining garden. Three days having elapsed before she took any steps to discover the perpetrators of this atrocious crime, she then issued a proclamation, offering a considerable reward for their apprehension. A universal suspicion fell upon Bothwell,

who was openly charged with the murder by the Earl of Lennox, and the 12th of April 1567 was appointed for his trial; but, knowing Mary's partiality to the accused, and dreading also his formidable power, the prosecutor failed to appear on the day of trial, so that the jury found the other—
NOT GUILTY.

6. As a proof of Bothwell's powerful influence over the queen, and his eager wish to gain popularity, he prevailed upon her to pass an act in favour of the protestant religion. He afterwards invited the nobles to a grand entertainment, and, having surrounded the house with armed men, induced his guests, by promises, flattery, and force, to sign a paper, which he had prepared, containing a declaration of his innocence, recommending him to the queen as a proper person for a husband, and promising to assist him with all their forces in case of opposition. Shortly after he had carried this measure, he collected a body of horsemen, with which he seized her majesty on the road to Stirling, dispersed her train without resistance, and carried her, with a few of her followers, to the castle of Dunbar.—Previous to this, he had unjustly obtained a divorce from his former wife, Lady Jean Gordon, both in the court of commissaries, and in that of the Archbishop of St Andrews. The deed of separation being thus secured, it was thought proper that Mary should be conducted to Edinburgh, where she appeared in presence of the chancellor and nobility, and declared that, though the earl's conduct had at first excited her indignation, his respectful behaviour since had determined her to raise him to higher honours. In pursuance of this declaration, she conferred upon him the title of Duke of Orkney, and publicly married him on the 15th of May 1567; after which he employed all his address and authority to compel the Earl of Mar to put him in possession of the young prince, but in vain.

7. On this occasion, J. Craig, minister of Edinburgh, showed a courage which ought to have covered all the nobles with shame for their tameness and servility. Not content with having refused to publish the banns between her majesty and Bothwell, in his sermons he publicly condemned their union; and when called before the council to answer for his temerity in thus passing the bounds of his commission, he told them, "that the bounds of his commission were the word of God, good laws, and natural reason: and were the queen's marriage tried by any of these, it would appear infamous and dishonourable to the whole world." The members were so overawed by this heroic behaviour in a private clergyman, that they dismissed him without further censure or punishment.

EXERCISES.

1. What effect did Rizzio's murder produce on the queen? How did she seek to be revenged on the conspirators? How did Darnley afterwards act?

2. In whom did Mary now confide? What advantage did he take of this influence over her?

3. When and where was James VI. born? How did Elizabeth receive the intelligence?

4. What means did Darnley employ to recover his authority? How did some of the queen's nobles advise her to act towards him?

5. Where did the queen celebrate the baptism of her son? When did the murder of Darnley take place? Upon whom did suspicion fall? What were the consequences?

6. How did Bothwell procure from the nobles a declaration of his innocence? How did he obtain possession of Mary's person? In what manner did Mary act before the chancellor? When did she marry Bothwell?

7. What boldness did J. Craig, minister of Edinburgh, discover?

SECTION VI.

1. BOTHWELL did not long enjoy his new dignity, as his own haughty conduct, together with the bitter reproaches of foreigners, at length roused the nobles from their lethargy, and induced them, the following month, to form an association for the defence of the prince's person. The leaders on this occasion were the Earls of Argyll, Athol, Mar, Morton, Glencairn, and Home; Lords Lindsay and Boyd; Murray of Tullibardine, Kirkcaldy of Grange, and Maitland the secretary. When intelligence of it reached the queen and her husband, they were seized with just alarm; upon which the former issued an order, requiring her subjects to take up arms, and attend him upon a day appointed.

2. Meanwhile the preparations of the lords were conducted with the greatest activity and success; they raised an army and marched to Edinburgh, from which city the earl, and the queen disguised in man's apparel, fled first to Borthwick and then to Dunbar. There he raised forces among his dependants, with which he proceeded towards the capital, and met the confederates on the same ground where the battle of Pinkey was fought. While the armies lay in this position, Du Croiz, the French ambassador, used all his influence to put an end to the quarrel without the effusion of blood, representing her majesty's inclination towards peace, and her willingness to pardon their offences. To this Morton replied, that they had not taken arms against their sovereign, but against the murderer of her late husband; and Glencairn added, that they did not come to ask pardon for any offence, but to punish those who had offended. These haughty answers convinced the envoy that his mediation would prove vain.

3. After this interview, the confederates advanced to the

attack with a resolute air, though not without due caution; while the royal army, which was posted to advantage on a rising ground, being alarmed at their approach, discovered no inclination to fight. Mary endeavoured to animate them; she wept, she threatened, she reproached them with cowardice, but all without effect. A few of Bothwell's immediate attendants were eager for battle; the rest stood wavering and irresolute, and some even began to steal out of the field. The earl, in order to encourage his troops, offered to decide the quarrel and to vindicate his own innocence, by single combat with any one of his adversaries; on which Kirkcaldy of Grange, Murray of Tullibardine, and the Lord Lindsay, contended for the honour of entering the lists against him. But the challenge proved mere bravado; for either the consciousness of guilt deprived him of his wonted courage, or the queen interposed her authority to prevent the contest. Already had the enemy's cavalry surrounded the hill on which Mary stood, so that all retreat was now impracticable. In this situation, she demanded an interview with Kirkcaldy, who, in the name of the other leaders, promised that, if she would consent to dismiss the unworthy lord from her presence, and govern the kingdom by the advice of her nobles, they would honour and obey her as their sovereign.

4. During this parley, the earl took his last farewell of the queen, and rode off the field with a few followers; upon which she resigned herself into the hands of the confederates. He escaped, in the first instance, to Dunbar, whence he sailed to the Orkney islands, where he afterwards equipped a vessel and engaged in the disgraceful profession of a pirate. In a short time he was taken prisoner by the Danes, confined ten years in prison, lost his senses, and died a miserable death, the just recompense of his flagitious conduct.

5. After the queen had surrendered, the associated lords conducted her to Edinburgh, amidst the reproaches of the soldiers, who held up before her a standard, on which was painted the dead body of the late king stretched on the ground and the young prince kneeling before it, and uttering these words,—“Judge and revenge my cause, O Lord!” Mary turned with horror from the shocking sight; and, by uttering the most bitter complaints, showed that she already began to feel the wretchedness of the situation in which she was placed. On her arrival, the streets were crowded with people, and she was led to the provost's house, worn out with fatigue, covered with dust, and bedewed with tears; exposed as a spectacle to her own subjects, who beheld her with the utmost insensibility.

6. The allied chiefs now adopted measures for their own safety; and for this purpose, on the 17th of June 1567, they confined the queen in the castle of Lochleven, then belonging to William Douglas, a relation of Morton and Murray. They afterwards took upon themselves the administration of public affairs, under the title of "Lords of the Secret Council;" and, searching the city of Edinburgh, found three persons who had been concerned in the murder of Darnley, who were tried and executed. About this time a casket was seized by Morton from one of Bothwell's servants, containing sonnets and letters, affirmed by her enemies to be written in Mary's own hand. These documents, which she was never permitted to see, and the originals of which appear to have been lost or destroyed, were employed as evidence to prove that she was privy to the murder of her husband. But her accession to this horrid deed is a point on which the opinions of historical writers are still much divided; some positively asserting her innocence, while others have as decidedly pronounced her guilty. A party of nobles, however, encouraged by Elizabeth, met at Hamilton for the purpose of restoring the unhappy princess to her liberty and crown; but, being destitute of vigour and unanimity, they took no steps for carrying their plans into execution.

7. The Lords of the Secret Council now compelled her to sign a deed, resigning the sceptre to her son, and appointing the Earl of Murray regent; after which they crowned the young prince at Stirling, on the 29th of July, in presence of a great number of noblemen and barons, and henceforth carried on the government in the name of James VI. The regent, in order to confirm his authority, called a meeting of parliament, on the 5th of December, when his sister's resignation was accepted; the king's authority and his own election were confirmed; and the imprisonment of the queen pronounced a legal act. The former statutes in favour of the protestant religion were also publicly ratified, and new ones enacted; yet it was remarkable that little was done to relieve the extreme poverty of the clergy.

8. Meanwhile Mary was employed in contrivances for effecting her escape, when, influenced by her charms and misfortunes, George Douglas, her keeper's brother, a youth of eighteen years, undertook her deliverance from Lochleven Castle. Accordingly, on the 2d of May 1568, after supper, the keys of the castle were stolen from the elder Douglas, and the gates opened to the queen and one of her maids; who, after locking them again, threw the keys into the lake, and escaped

in a boat to the opposite shore. There she was received by Douglas, Lord Seton, and other determined loyalists, with the utmost joy, and escorted to the town of Hamilton, where she arrived next morning in safety. On receiving notice of her escape, her friends ran to arms, and, in a few days, her court was filled with a splendid train of nobles, whose followers constituted an army of six thousand men. Before these adherents she declared that her signature to the deed renouncing the crown had been extorted by force; for which reason they were declared null and void, and an association immediately formed for the defence of her person, signed by nine earls, nine bishops, eighteen lords, and many gentlemen of distinction.

9. In this emergency the regent displayed the superiority of his address, by amusing Mary for some days, and listening to her proposals, till he drew his adherents together from different parts of the kingdom, when he abruptly broke off the negotiation. Upon the failure of this treaty, the queen's generals commanded their squadrons to advance, intending to conduct her to Dumbarton Castle; but Murray prevented them from carrying their purpose into effect, by posting his troops on an eminence on the road, called Langside-hill, where he waited the approach of the royalists, whose greater strength in cavalry could be of no benefit to them on such broken ground. The Hamiltons, who composed the vanguard, began the battle, but running too eagerly to the attack, they put themselves out of breath, and left the main body far behind. The encounter of the spearmen was fierce and desperate. As, however, the assailing party were exposed on one flank to a continued fire from a body of musqueteers, attacked on the other by the regent's best troops, and not supported by the main column of the army, they were soon obliged to give way. The rout immediately became universal; three hundred fell on the field; and though the number killed in the flight was small, the amount of prisoners was very great, and among them many persons of distinction. The conqueror marched back to Glasgow, and returned thanks to God for this great, and, on his side, almost bloodless victory, which was obtained on the 13th of May.

10. During the engagement, Mary stood on a hill, and beheld all that passed in the field with a degree of emotion which could not be easily described. When she saw the army which was her last hope thrown into irretrievable confusion, her spirit, which all her past misfortunes had not been able to subdue, completely sunk. In the utmost consternation she began her flight; and so strong were her impressions of fear,

that she stopped not to repose till she reached the abbey of Dundrennan, in Galloway, more than sixty miles from the scene of conflict. These revolutions in her fortune were equally rapid and singular. In the short space of eleven days she had been a captive at the mercy of her most inveterate enemies; she had seen a powerful army under her command, and a numerous train of nobles at her devotion; and was now obliged to flee, in the utmost danger of her life, and to lurk, with a few attendants, in a corner of her kingdom, where her fears impelled her to adopt a step the most unadvised as well as the most disastrous she ever took. In spite of the entreaties of Herries, Fleming, and her other attendants, she crossed the Solway Firth; and, on her arrival at Carlisle, immediately wrote a letter to Elizabeth representing her distress, and imploring assistance. The English queen instantly determined, with the advice of her ministers, to sacrifice her honour to her interest, by detaining the royal fugitive a prisoner in her dominions. In order to screen this base conduct from the censure which it merited, she instantly despatched Lord Scrope, and Sir Francis Knollys, her vice-chamberlain, to the unhappy princess, with letters full of kindness and condolence; whilst their private instructions were to watch all her motions, and prevent her escape into her own country.

11. Mary now demanded a personal interview with Elizabeth; but this favour was denied, till she should clear herself from the imputation of a crime so horrid as the murder of her husband. In consequence of this refusal, she fell into the snare in which the other wished to entangle her, frankly offering to submit her case to the queen, and undertaking to produce proofs of her innocence. This was the very point to which the English sovereign laboured to bring the matter; for, by this appeal on the part of her relative, she became umpire in her cause, had it in her power to protract the inquiry, and, if she chose, to involve it in endless difficulties. Accordingly she proposed to her to appoint commissioners to hear both parties; and wrote to the regent to send such individuals as might, by their evidence, justify his proceedings against his mistress. The Scottish queen now discovered the artifice of her conduct, and immediately, in a long letter which she wrote to her, retracted the offer which she had just made. This communication somewhat disconcerted the plan formed by her wily antagonist, who nevertheless laid it before the privy-council, who determined, in defiance of all such remonstrances, to go on with the inquiry. In the meantime, the regent brought to trial six of the most distinguished prisoners taken at the battle of Langside, who were condemned and led

to the place of execution, but pardoned by the powerful intercession of Knox.

EXERCISES.

1. Who were the leaders of the association for the defence of the young prince? What steps did the queen and Bothwell take to defeat it?

2. To what places did the queen escape? By whom were means used to reconcile the queen and the nobles? By whom were they rendered ineffectual?

3. What ensued after this rupture betwixt the queen and the confederates? How did Mary endeavour to animate her troops? How did Bothwell behave at this juncture? What step did Mary take to conciliate the confederates? What conditions did they demand of her?

4. What became of Bothwell?

5. How was Mary treated after her surrender?

6. Where did the confederates confine the queen? What proofs of Mary's guilt appeared?

7. When was James VI. crowned? What measures did the lords of council adopt after his coronation?

8. To what place did Mary make her escape? Who composed the association for her defence?

9. When was the battle of Langside fought? What were the particulars of it?

10. What became of Queen Mary? Whom did Elizabeth despatch to attend her?

11. What policy did Elizabeth adopt respecting Mary? How did Mary act on discovering Elizabeth's designs? What became of the prisoners whom the regent tried?

SECTION VII.

1. In order to prevent her royal kinswoman from effecting her escape, Elizabeth removed her to Bolton, in Lancashire, where she renewed her proposal for an examination of the charges urged against her by the regent of Scotland. Her impatience and despair, together with the promise of being restored to her throne, at length induced the captive to comply; upon which the other ordered the Earl of Murray to send commissioners to York, where the trial was to be conducted. The deputies appointed by the English court for the determination of this great cause, which took place on the 4th of October 1568, were Thomas Howard, duke of Norfolk, Thomas Ratcliff, earl of Sussex, and Sir Ralph Sadler. Those who appeared for the Queen of Scots were, Lesley, bishop of Ross, Lords Livingston, Boyd, and Herries, Hamilton, commendator of Kilwinning, Sir John Gordon, and Sir James Cockburn. The commissioners nominated by the native government were the regent himself, the Earl of Morton, Adam Bothwell, bishop of Orkney, Lord Lindsay, and Pitcairn, commendator of Dunfermline; while Maitland of Lethington, George Buchanan, the famous poet and historian, and some others, were appointed to attend them as their assistants.

2. During the trial, the Duke of Norfolk became secretly

attached to Mary, and privately represented to the regent how dishonourable as well as dangerous his present conduct was, in becoming the public accuser of his sovereign. Murray listened to these remarks; and, before he proceeded in the accusation, desired to be informed how far the power of the English commissioners extended? This question was referred to Elizabeth, who gave no answer; but, suspecting the reason for which it was put, she removed the conference to Westminster, and resolved to appoint new deputies. She also entertained suspicions while Lord Scrope had the charge of the northern queen, and therefore removed her to Tutbury, in Staffordshire, where she was placed under the superintendence of the Earl of Shrewsbury.

3. In the meantime, she received the regent with every mark of respect and attention; on learning which, Mary instructed her representatives to complain of such partiality, and also of the strictures passed on her character in the presence of the English nobles and the ambassadors of foreign princes. When the conference commenced at Hampton-court, Elizabeth added to her commissioners Sir Nicholas Baker, keeper of the great seal, the Earls of Arundel and Leicester, Lord Clinton, and Sir William Cecil. The necessity of the regent's affairs now compelled him either to acknowledge himself guilty of rebellion, or to charge his queen with having committed murder; nor did he deliberate long on the choice he should make, but boldly accused her, not only of having consented to that cruel deed, but of being accessary to the contrivance and execution of it. The Scottish members expressed the utmost indignation on hearing this charge; but, instead of answering it, immediately demanded for their mistress a personal interview with her royal cousin; declaring that, if such privilege were denied, they would protest against all subsequent proceedings. With this request the latter refused to comply; upon which the commissioners instantly withdrew. She now employed all her art to get possession of the proofs which the regent had to produce of his sister's guilt; and accordingly commanded her representatives to testify her displeasure at his presumption, in forgetting so far the duty of a subject as to accuse his sovereign of such atrocious crimes. This stratagem had the desired effect. Murray, being thus urged, instantly delivered the acts of the northern Parliament, confirming at once his authority and the queen's resignation; also the confession of the persons executed for the king's murder; and more especially the letters contained in the fatal casket. Mary's advocates presented a reply to the allegations of her enemies; after which Elizabeth dismissed both parties,

resolving to leave all the affairs of Scotland in the same state as she had found them. But before the regent left London he had a secret interview with her, when she gave him a sum of money, and engaged to support the interests of the young king to the utmost of her power.

4. On discovering this deceit, Mary endeavoured to rouse her adherents in Scotland to arms; and for this purpose circulated a report that Murray had agreed to send the prince into England; to surrender all the places of strength northward of the Tweed; and to acknowledge the dependence of the Scots upon the southern kingdom. Elizabeth issued a proclamation with the view of obviating the effects of such reports, and, from this period, became still more hostile to her unfortunate victim. In consequence, however, of the representations made by the latter, a party was formed against the regent, headed by the Duke of Chatelherault, who had been recently sent to Edinburgh by the court of France, and whom she forthwith invested with the dignity of her lieutenant-general. The earl immediately assembled an army, and coming suddenly upon the duke, compelled him to agree to a truce; but, finding that he wished to evade its accomplishment, he afterwards committed him and Lord Herries prisoners to the castle.

5. In 1569, a short time after these transactions, Mary wrote to the Scottish parliament, proposing that her marriage with Bothwell should be reviewed by proper judges, in order that, if found invalid, it might be legally dissolved. The members, however, refused to agree to her request; supposing it to proceed, not from any aversion to that adventurer, but from her eagerness to conclude a union with the Duke of Norfolk, who, by his great influence, had already brought over most of the nobles to favour his design. Nothing indeed was wanting to complete his purpose except the sentence of divorce. The regent, however, easily saw that the downfall of his own power must be the consequence of the duke's success, and he therefore refused to countenance the measure. This necessarily occasioned a delay, during which Elizabeth got notice of the whole affair; in consequence of which Norfolk and some other men of rank were subjected to confinement, nor did he regain his liberty till after the lapse of nine months, and on condition that he should hold no farther correspondence with the Queen of Scots. By means of the Duke of Alva, the King of Spain afterwards corresponded with the Earls of Northumberland and Westmoreland for Mary's deliverance; but this intercourse being discovered, these noblemen were obliged to flee.

6. It is said that Murray had entered into a private negotiation with Elizabeth to get the queen into his own hands. The former would have been pleased, on any safe terms, to get rid of a prisoner who gave her so much inquietude; but this project was frustrated by the sudden death of the regent, who was assassinated by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. This gentleman had been condemned and pardoned after the battle of Langside: part of his estate, however, it is said, was bestowed upon one of the popular party, who, besides seizing his house, turned out his wife naked in a cold night into the open fields, where, before next morning, she became completely insane. This injury made a deep impression on the mind of Hamilton, and from that moment he vowed revenge. Accordingly, on the 23d of January 1570, when the earl was passing through Linlithgow, he took his stand in a wooden gallery which had a window towards the street; spread a feather-bed on the floor, to prevent the noise of his feet from being heard; and, while his victim was proceeding slowly along, deliberately took aim, and shot him through the body. The regent's followers instantly endeavoured to force their way into the house, but found the door strongly barricaded; so that, before it could be forced open, the assassin had mounted a fleet horse, which stood ready for him at a back passage, and was already far beyond their reach. The governor died during the ensuing night.

7. On the death of Murray, a formidable collision took place between the two rival parties, till at length, by English influence, the king's adherents were enabled to confer the government on the Earl of Lennox. This new ruler employed all his power in endeavouring to crush the queen's friends; and, with this view, proclaimed the Duke of Chatelherault, Huntly, Maitland, and other leaders, traitors and enemies to their country. Such severity on the part of the executive compelled the sufferers to apply to the King of Spain for assistance; upon which they were relieved from this disagreeable state by Elizabeth, who shortly afterwards concluded a treaty, not from any affection to them or their cause, but owing to the apprehension she entertained of an attack from foreign princes. She endeavoured further to deceive them, by appointing commissioners to meet, on the 1st of March, those of Mary and the regent, in order to arrange conditions for her restoration to the throne. But no sooner had affairs abroad begun to assume a less threatening aspect, than she put a stop to the negotiation, and kept the unhappy queen under stricter custody than ever.

1570. 8. About this time, Captain Crawford, a gallant officer,

surprised the castle of Dumbarton, a place of the greatest importance, of which the queen's party had kept possession since the commencement of the civil wars. This he effected in the following manner. Having marched from Glasgow in the evening, with a small but determined band, provided with scaling-ladders, he arrived about midnight at the bottom of the rock; and the weather being extremely foggy, he made his attempt where the ascent was highest, because in that place there were few sentinels, and he hoped to find them less on the alert. The first ladder was scarcely fixed, when the weight of the numbers who eagerly mounted brought it to the ground; but none of the assailants were hurt by the fall, and the garrison was not alarmed by the noise. Crawford, in order to secure it, scrambled up the precipice, and fastened it to the roots of a tree which grew in a cleft. This place they all reached with the utmost difficulty, though they were still at a great distance from the basis of the wall. Their ladder was made fast a second time; but in the middle of their progress they met with an unforeseen difficulty, occasioned by one of their companions, who was seized with a sudden fit, and clung to the steps. All were at a stand, as it was impossible to pass him; and to throw him down was repugnant to their feelings, and might have occasioned a discovery. On this occasion, the captain's presence of mind proved a valuable resource: he ordered the soldier to be bound fast to the ladder, that he might not fall off when the fit should terminate; and then directing his followers to turn up the other side of it, they passed him with ease. Day began to break, and there still remained a high wall to scale; but, after so many difficulties had been surmounted, this was soon accomplished. A sentry observed the first man who appeared on the parapet, and had just time to call out to his comrades, when he was knocked on the head. On the alarm being given, the officers and soldiers of the garrison ran out naked, unarmed, anxious for their own safety, but unprepared to make resistance. The assailants, rushing forward with loud shouts and great fury, took possession of the magazines, seized the cannon, and turned them against their enemies. Lord Fleming, the governor, got into a small boat, and escaped, without a single attendant, into Argyllshire; and the gallant leader of the little party, not having lost a man in the enterprise, was soon afterwards appointed to succeed him. The following prisoners of distinction were taken on this occasion:—Lady Fleming, who was treated with great politeness and humanity; Verac, the French envoy, whose public character protected him from the usage which his activity in stirring up enemies against the king had merit-

ed; and Hamilton, archbishop of St Andrews, who was carried under a strong guard to Stirling. This dignitary, as he had been formerly attainted, and was become, by his zeal and abilities, both odious and formidable, was, without any formal trial, condemned to be hanged; and, on the fourth day after he was taken, the sentence was executed. He was the first prelate in Scotland who died by the hands of the public executioner.

EXERCISES.

1. In what place was Mary confined by Elizabeth? Where did the commissioners meet for her trial? What commissioners did the English queen appoint to try Mary? Who were the Scottish commissioners?

2. Which of the English nobility espoused Mary's cause? What demand did the regent make? Whither was Mary now sent?

3. What charge did the regent exhibit against Mary? How did her commissioners act in consequence of it? What stratagem did Elizabeth employ to obtain proofs of Mary's guilt? What effect did it produce?

4. How did Mary act in this emergency? What became of the Duke of Chatelherault?

5. What application did Mary make to the Scottish parliament? What instigated the regent to refuse it? What befell the Duke of Norfolk and other English noblemen for their attachment to Mary?

6. What agreement had the regent made with Elizabeth? How was the execution of it prevented? When and by whom was the regent slain?

7. Who succeeded him? What severe measures did Lennox adopt? What was the consequence?

8. Who surprised the castle of Dumbarton? What prisoners of distinction were taken? What became of the Archbishop of St Andrews?

SECTION VIII.

1. THE execution of the archbishop enraged the queen's party to the highest degree, and hostilities were renewed with the greatest fierceness. Kirkcaldy, governor of Edinburgh Castle, having denounced the authority of Lennox as illegal, seized and fortified the city: after which all the calamities of civil war desolated the kingdom, as fellow-citizens, friends, and brothers, ranged themselves under the standards of the opposite factions. In every county, and almost in every town and village, "king's-men" and "queen's-men" were names of distinction. Political hatred dissolved all natural ties, and extinguished that reciprocal good-will which holds mankind together in society. Religious zeal mingled itself with these political divisions, and contributed not a little to increase the general animosity.

2. The queen's faction called a parliament at Edinburgh, which was attended by only three peers and two bishops, who passed an act, attainting two hundred of the king's friends. On learning this transaction, the latter party convoked a numerous meeting at Stirling, who began their proceedings

by framing acts against the adherents of her majesty. During their sitting, in the midst of all that security which confidence in their own numbers or distance from danger could inspire, they were awakened early on the morning of the 4th September 1570, by the shouts of the enemy in the heart of the town. In a moment, the house of every person of distinction was surrounded; and, before they knew how to account for so strange an event, the regent, the Earls of Argyll, Morton, Glencairn, Cassillis, Eglinton, Buchan, Montrose, the Lords Sempill, Cathcart, and Ogilvie, were all made prisoners, and mounted behind troopers, who were ready to carry them to the capital. Kirkcaldy, the author of this daring enterprise, had despatched four hundred men under the command of Huntly, Lord Claud Hamilton, and Scott of Buccleuch, who arrived at their destination by four in the morning. Not a single sentry being posted on the walls, nor any guards appointed, they met with no resistance, except from Morton, who defended his house with obstinate valour: nor did he surrender till they set it on fire, and forced him out of it by the flames. These proceedings required some time; during which the private men, unaccustomed to regular discipline, left their colours, and began to plunder the shops and dwellings of the citizens. The Earl of Mar, hearing the noise, sallied out from the castle with thirty soldiers, who fired briskly upon the enemy, of whom very few, except the officers, kept together in a body. The townsmen took arms to assist their governor; a sudden panic struck the assailants; some fled, others surrendered themselves to their own prisoners; and had not the borderers, who followed Scott, prevented a pursuit by carrying off all the horses within the place, not a man of them would have escaped. The regent, however, fell a victim to the fury of the soldiers, although the officer to whom he surrendered endeavoured to protect him at the expense of his own life.

3. Lennox was succeeded in the regency by the Earl of Mar, who had distinguished himself by his moderation, humanity, and disinterestedness. Shortly afterwards, the Duke of Norfolk, who still continued to correspond with Mary, was again detected in his designs to marry that princess and dethrone Elizabeth; and, being condemned by a jury of twenty-five peers, was executed on the 8th of May 1572. This occurrence farther irritated the English sovereign against her unfortunate prisoner; and she, accordingly, avowing her determination to act in favour of the king's party, dismissed the queen's ambassador, together with several of her domestics, and kept herself under the strictest guard.

4. In April, she also concluded a defensive treaty with France, in which no notice whatever was taken of the Queen of Scots or her affairs. A discovery was afterwards made of a correspondence between the latter and the Duke of Alva; upon which the English parliament resolved to pass an act, declaring her guilty of high treason, and depriving her of all right of succession to the crown. The dreadful massacre of the French protestants, which took place about this time, filled the minds of all classes with horror, which the regent wisely improved to negotiate a general peace; but this good design was frustrated by the ambition and avarice of Morton. Such unprincipled selfishness made a deep impression on the mind of Lord Mar, who loved his country. Grief soon broke his spirit, and by degrees brought on a distemper, of which he died,—revered by both parties, as a man of honourable views and incorruptible integrity.

5. The Earl of Morton succeeded to his high office on the 24th November 1572, through the powerful influence of Elizabeth, notwithstanding the fears of the people and the jealousy of the nobles. After his accession, a remarkable innovation took place in the government of the church; as the General Assembly passed an act, empowering some of their members to assume the titles of archbishop, bishop, and dean, and to hold their new preferment during the king's minority.

6. On the day of the regent's accession died John Knox in the sixty-seventh year of his age,—a man remarkable for uniting the various qualities of zeal, intrepidity, disinterestedness, learning, and eloquence. The regent pronounced at his grave the following short, but honourable eulogium:—"There lies one who never feared the face of man!"

7. At length, in 1573, Morton put an end to the civil wars which had distracted the nation, by concluding a treaty at Perth with Chatelherault and Huntly. By the assistance of the English forces, he also obtained possession of Edinburgh Castle, after a brave resistance made by the garrison, which consisted of Kirkcaldy, the governor, Lord Home, Maitland of Lethington, Sir Robert Melvil, and a hundred and sixty soldiers. These prisoners were not treated honourably by Elizabeth, nor in conformity to the promises of her general; but were given up by her to Morton, who executed the commandant and his brother. Maitland, to avoid a similar fate, put a period to his life, and the rest were set at liberty. After this transaction, the regent continued with vigour to reform the disorders which prevailed in all parts of the kingdom. But his severity and avarice, for the gratification of which he robbed the nobles, the church, and men of all ranks,

urged the Earls of Argyll and Athol (whom he had exasperated) to represent to James, now twelve years old, the misery of his people, and to urge him to call a meeting of the principal members of the aristocracy. This body advised the king to deprive Morton of his office, and to take the administration of the government into his own hands.

8. James immediately complied with this recommendation, and in 1578, chose a council of twelve noblemen, who obliged the earl to resign the command of Edinburgh Castle, and then adopted measures to strip him of all his power. This treatment roused him to exertion; and, having learnt that the counsellors were distrusted, as favouring the cause of popery, he gained the confidence of Mar, by whose assistance he obtained access to the young sovereign, now residing at Stirling. He immediately issued a proclamation in his majesty's name changing the place announced for the meeting of parliament from Edinburgh to that town. The legislature, on this occasion, confirmed the king's acceptance of the government, and ratified an act for Morton's security; upon which Athol and Argyll, the heads of the opposite party, took up arms. By the mediation of Elizabeth, however, a treaty was concluded, and they were both chosen privy-councillors; but shortly after, the former died, under strong suspicions of having been poisoned at the instigation of his noble antagonist.—His office was given to Argyll, who was now willing to be reconciled; but the late regent at the same time succeeded in persuading the king to declare Lords John and Claud Hamilton traitors, and to confiscate their estates.

9. Mary about this period sent Naué, her secretary, bearing a letter, some valuable jewels, and a vest embroidered with her own hands, to her son; but, as she had given him only the title of Prince of Scotland, her messenger was dismissed, without being admitted to his presence. At this period James began to show that attachment to favourites which accompanied him through life. The chief of these were Esme Stuart, a relation of the Earl of Lennox, whom he elevated to the rank of duke, and Captain James Stuart, son of Lord Ochiltree. The former was gay and courtly, but unprincipled and ignorant of the state of the country; the latter rough and notorious for every vice; both, however, concurred in employing their whole influence to undermine the credit of Morton, which they in the end accomplished.

10. The king at length summoned a parliament to meet at Edinburgh, and went thither from Stirling Castle.—Shortly after, a rumour prevailed that Morton designed to carry him to England; in consequence of which the Duke of Lennox

was appointed lord-chamberlain, having under him a band of gentlemen to guard the royal person. The earl on discovering the power of his enemies, applied to Elizabeth, who, by her representative, accused Lennox, and insisted that he should be instantly dismissed from the privy-council. This interference, however, was considered as an affront to his majesty, as well as an encroachment on the independence of his kingdom; the English ambassador was accordingly dismissed, and the fall of the late regent thereby hastened. In consequence of this success, Captain Stuart accused him, on his knees before the king and his councillors, of being accessory to the murder of Darnley, and forthwith offered to prove the charge. The earl, who was present, immediately answered with firmness, that his zeal in punishing those who were suspected of that crime might well exempt himself from any suspicion; nevertheless he would cheerfully submit to a trial, which would both prove his own innocence and the malice of his enemies. But in order to shelter him from the danger with which he was threatened, Elizabeth despatched Randolph to Scotland; who, upon his arrival, addressed himself to the parliament, enumerated the benefits which his mistress had conferred on their country, and employed both promises and threats to accomplish his design. All these means, however, failed to produce the desired effect; they were considered as insulting attacks on the national sovereignty. The accused was forthwith tried in a violent and irregular manner. Stuart, who had been created Earl of Arran, is said, in order to extort evidence, to have tortured several of his servants; and the objections made by Morton to some of his enemies who composed the jury were tumultuously overruled. After a short consultation, he was found guilty of concealing and being actively concerned in the conspiracy against the life of the late king. When he heard this verdict, he exclaimed with some vehemence, "God knows it is not so!" He conducted himself in his last hours with the utmost fortitude and composure of mind, and was executed on the 2d of June 1581, being the day after his trial. His head was placed on the public jail; his body was carried by porters to the burial-place of criminals; and none of his friends dared to accompany it to the grave, or discover their gratitude and respect by any symptoms of sorrow.

EXERCISES.

1. In what state was the kingdom at this period?
2. Where did the queen's party call a parliament? What was the result of this measure? Where did the king's party meet? What befell them during the meeting? Who was the author of this daring enterprise? What circumstances occasioned its failure? What became of the regent?

3. Who succeeded Lennox as regent? What became of the Duke of Norfolk?

4. What induced the English parliament to declare Mary guilty of high treason? By whom was the regent's design to restore peace frustrated?

5. Who succeeded Mar as regent? What changes took place in the church?

6. At what time did John Knox die? What was his character?

7. By what means did the regent finish the civil wars? How did he exasperate the nobles? What advice did they give James?

8. How did the young king treat Morton? What was the consequence? What became of Athol?

9. What was the behaviour of James to his mother? How did his character discover itself? What sort of favourites did he choose?

10. Who was appointed lord-chamberlain? Who accused Morton before the king? What verdict did the jury find? How did Morton conduct himself in his last moments? When was he executed?

SECTION IX.

1582. 1. THIS year disturbances took place between the court and the General Assembly. The latter having decreed that the office of a bishop, as then exercised, had no foundation in the word of God, the former refused to acquiesce in this decision. The ministers of Edinburgh likewise boldly inveighed against the corruptions of the administration, naming Lennox and the king's other favourites as the chief authors of the national grievances. In consequence of this boldness, James issued a proclamation, commanding Dury, one of the most popular preachers, to leave the city, and abstain from doing duty in public. Instead of complying with this mandate, he appealed to the judicatories of the church, who approved of his doctrine; upon which the magistrates had recourse to violence.

2. In order to deliver themselves from the oppression of the two royal favourites, several of the nobles invited James to Ruthven Castle, where they presented to him a memorial denouncing them as enemies to the religion and liberties of their country. The king, though he received this remonstrance with the complaisance which was necessary in his present situation, was extremely impatient to be gone; but, as he approached the door of the apartment, the tutor of Glammis rudely stopped him. His majesty complained, expostulated, threatened, and, finding all this without effect, burst into tears. "No matter," said Glammis, fiercely, "better children weep than bearded men." These words made a deep impression upon James's mind, and were never forgotten. The conspirators immediately dismissed such of the king's followers as they suspected, and guarded his person with the utmost care. He was compelled afterwards to publish a proclamation, declaring that he approved of what had been done, and commanding Lennox to leave the kingdom; who accordingly

sailed for France, where he shortly after died of grief. They next endeavoured to gain the approbation of their countrymen, by obtaining a legal sanction for their enterprise from the sovereign himself, the parliament, and the General Assembly. Mary, on learning that her son was in confinement, wrote to Elizabeth, begging her not to abandon him to his rebellious subjects; but to this appeal no attention whatever was paid.

3. Meanwhile, James, impatient of restraint, gained Stuart, the commander of the band who guarded his person, through whose interest he obtained permission to visit the Earl of March at St Andrews. Accordingly, upon the entrance of the king into the castle, the colonel ordered the gates to be shut, and his followers excluded. Here he remained during the long period of ten months; at the end of which he called into his presence the leaders of both factions, and declared that he would pass an act of oblivion, and henceforth govern all his subjects with equal affection. Unfortunately Arran having regained his former influence, soon thwarted this prudence and moderation. He advised his master to issue a proclamation, requiring all the nobles, who were concerned in his detention, to surrender themselves prisoners; on failure of which they should be declared guilty of high treason. The Earl of Gowry accordingly made his submission, and was allowed to retire as an exile into France; but, delaying to sail, he was afterwards seized, and beheaded at Stirling.—Angus, Mar, and Glamis, perceiving their danger, seized the castle of that town with a party of their friends; upon which James, raising an army of twenty thousand men, marched against them. On receiving this intelligence, they fled to England, and thereby injured their own cause, added strength to that of the court, and confirmed the power of Arran. The king afterwards called a parliament, which passed such laws as totally overturned the constitution and discipline of the church; whereupon all the ministers of Edinburgh removed beyond the Tweed, and many eminent clergymen throughout the country imitated their example.

4. In 1584, Elizabeth detected a conspiracy formed by Francis Throgmorton, a Cheshire gentleman, the Duke of Guise, the Pope, and the King of Spain, for setting Mary at liberty. She accordingly punished Throgmorton as a traitor, dismissed the Spanish ambassador, and succeeded in gaining over Arran to her interest. By this last measure she had James completely in her power; who, stimulated by his favourite, and secure in the friendship of the English queen, now proceeded to attain Angus, Glamis, Mar, and others,

whose estates the earl and his associates divided among themselves. By their rigorous treatment of the clergy also, the most active supporters of religion were driven from their posts; whilst Arran, hardened in guilt, was consequently employed in such acts of cruelty and injustice as rendered him justly detestable to the whole nation.

5. About this time was discovered another conspiracy for the invasion of England, formed by the King of Spain and the Duke of Guise, upon which the Scottish nobles entered into an association for the defence of that country; whilst the unfortunate Mary, to whose intrigues all these commotions were imputed, being now an object of fear and hatred, was delivered to the custody of new keepers, who treated her with still greater severity. Her distress was increased by the conduct of her son, who, influenced by the Master of Gray, his ambassador at the English court, wrote her a harsh and undutiful letter, refusing to acknowledge her as Queen of Scotland. Political cares, which were no less perplexing, now occupied Elizabeth's mind; and the alarming progress of the popish league at last roused her to exertion. Fearing the consequences of it, she despatched Sir Edward Wotton to James, who concluded a strict alliance between the two kingdoms, in defence of the protestant religion. Meantime she secretly assisted the banished lords, who were encouraged to recross the border; where, being joined by their friends and vassals, to the number of ten thousand men, they laid siege to the castle of Stirling, which they reduced, and obtained possession of the king's person. Unable to resent this injury, he granted them a pardon, agreed to put the principal forts into their hands, removed his favourites, and called a parliament to restore tranquillity. Arran was deprived of all his honours, stripped of his illgotten spoils, and declared by the estates an enemy to his country. The clergy, however, obtained no redress of their grievances; for, as the nobles acceded to the determination of the king to maintain the laws passed the preceding year, the claims of the church were sacrificed to the interests of the laity.

EXERCISES.

1. What disturbance took place between the court and the General Assembly? How did the ministers of Edinburgh act? What was the consequence?
2. Where did the nobles invite James to meet them? What happened at Ruthven Castle? What step was taken to procure the liberation of James?
3. By whose means did James regain his freedom? What became of the Earl of Gowry and the rest of the conspirators? What steps did James take to humble the church?
4. By whom was a conspiracy formed at this time against Elizabeth? What severities did James exercise against the exiled lords and the clergy?
5. What new conspiracy was projected against Elizabeth? How was

Mary, who was thought to be involved in it, now treated? What advice did the Master of Gray give James respecting his mother? What success attended the banished lords? What became of Arran?

SECTION X.

1. AN event now took place, which, after a very brief period, proved fatal to Mary. A discovery was made of a plot to assassinate Elizabeth, formed by an officer in the Spanish service, named Savage, and seconded by Ballard a popish priest, who communicated it to Babington, and a number of other gentlemen, who engaged to assist him. Fourteen of them, in consequence, suffered death; and the English ministry, considering them as instruments employed by the Queen of Scots, insisted that she should be immediately brought to trial. This proposal being perfectly agreeable to their mistress, she appointed forty of the principal nobles, with five judges as commissioners, to hear and decide this great cause.

2. On receiving information of these proceedings, Mary protested against them in the most solemn manner, and refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of the persons nominated by her enemy. "I came into the kingdom," said she, "an independent sovereign, to implore the queen's assistance, not to subject myself to her authority. Nor is my spirit so broken by past misfortunes, or so intimidated by present dangers, as to stoop to any thing unbecoming the majesty of a crowned head, or that will disgrace the ancestors from whom I am descended, and the son to whom I shall leave my throne. If I must be tried, princes alone can be my peers. The Queen of England's subjects, however noble their births may be, are of a rank inferior to mine. Ever since my arrival in this kingdom, I have been confined as a prisoner. Its laws never afforded me any protection. Let them not now be perverted, in order to take away my life." The commissioners employed arguments, entreaties, and even threats, to overcome her resolution. She persisted, however, for two days, in declining their competency: at last Hatton, the vice-chamberlain, prevailed on her to submit to a trial; representing that, by avoiding it, she injured her own reputation, and deprived herself of the only opportunity of setting her innocence in a clear light.

3. The trial accordingly commenced at Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, and was conducted by Elizabeth's attorney and solicitor, who opened the charge against her, by detailing all the circumstances of the late conspiracy. Copies of her letters to several of the conspirators were produced, the

declarations of Naué and Curle, her secretaries, were read, and the whole arranged in the most specious order which the art of the lawyers could devise, and heightened by every colour which their eloquence could impart. Mary began her defence with the greatest magnanimity and presence of mind. She bewailed her unhappy situation, that, after a long confinement of nineteen years, during which she had suffered treatment not less cruel than unmerited, she was at last loaded with an accusation, which tended not only to rob her of her right of succession, and to deprive her of life itself, but to transmit her name with infamy to future ages. She then proceeded to the particular articles in the accusation, most of which she completely refuted; she candidly acknowledged her having solicited her friends to exert themselves for her relief; but solemnly denied, that, either in thought or word, she had ever consented to any attempt against the life of her royal sister. The trial continued two days; after which, on the twenty-fifth of October 1586, the commissioners adjourned to the Star-chamber at Westminster; where, after reviewing their whole proceedings, they unanimously declared her—GUILTY.—The parliament immediately approved this sentence as just and well founded, and requested their sovereign to carry it into effect.

4. James, on learning his mother's danger, despatched Sir William Keith, as his ambassador extraordinary to the Queen of England; and afterwards wrote to her a letter with his own hand, complaining in the bitterest terms of her conduct, and threatening revenge. Not satisfied with these demonstrations, he assembled the nobles, raised forces, and even despatched ambassadors to Spain, France, and Denmark. Elizabeth was at first offended at the sharpness of his remonstrances: she, however, returned to him a soft and evasive answer; and in the meantime acquainted Mary with the sentence, who received the message, not only without symptoms of fear, but with expressions of triumph. Soon after, the Scottish king sent the Master of Gray and Sir Robert Melvil, who, on failure of the terms they had to propose, were instructed to assume a higher tone. This important duty Melvil executed with zeal and fidelity; but the other is said to have betrayed his trust, and secretly encouraged Elizabeth to proceed, repeating the proverb, "the dead cannot bite;" and undertaking to prevent any violent effects from his master's resentment.

5. In order to alarm the people, rumours of danger from France, Spain, and Scotland, as also of conspiracies to seize the English queen, and burn London, were artfully fabricated;

which induced them to exclaim against the government for delaying the execution. Elizabeth now ventured to strike the last blow; and, calling for the death-warrant, she signed it, and said to Davison, her secretary, jesting, "Go and tell Walsingham what I have done, though I am afraid he will die for grief when he hears it." She afterwards wrote to Paulet to deliver his sovereign from fear and danger, by shortening the life of his prisoner; and, upon his rejecting this proposal with disdain, she called him "a dainty precise fellow." Orders were then given to the Earls of Shrewsbury and Kent to see the sentence put in execution; and these noblemen, having accordingly proceeded to Fotheringay, and read to the unfortunate captive the warrant with which they were intrusted, required her to prepare to die next morning.

6. Mary heard this solemn warning with the utmost composure, and immediately replied,—“That soul is unworthy of the joys of heaven which repines because the body must endure the stroke of the executioner; and though I did not expect that the Queen of England would set the first example of violating the sacred person of a sovereign prince, I willingly submit to that which Providence has decreed to be my lot.” Then, laying her hand upon a Bible, which happened to be near her, she solemnly protested her innocence of Babington’s conspiracy against Elizabeth’s life. She afterwards entreated that her almoner might attend her in her last moments; but even this favour, usually granted to the vilest of criminals, was denied her. When the earls retired, she endeavoured to comfort her domestics, who were drowned in grief; and, falling on her knees, with all of them around her, she thanked Heaven that her sorrows were so near an end, and prayed that she might be enabled to endure with fortitude what still remained. She wrote her will with her own hand; and divided her jewels and clothes among her servants according to their rank or merit, asking their forgiveness, if ever she had failed in any part of her duty towards them. At supper she ate moderately; after which she retired to rest, and slept calmly a few hours; then rising early, she employed herself in devotion till the high sheriff arrived. On his informing her that the hour was come, she replied she was ready; and, with a majestic mien and cheerful countenance, advanced towards the place of execution. She was dressed in a mourning habit, with an elegance and splendour which she had long laid aside; an *Agnus Dei* hung at her neck; her beads at her girdle; and in her hand she carried a crucifix of ivory. Sir Andrew Melvil, the master of her household, attended her to the scaffold; who, on seeing a mistress whom he ten-

derly loved, in this situation, melted into tears, bewailing her condition, and complaining of his own hard fate, in being obliged to carry the account of so mournful an event to his native country. Mary, anxious to moderate his grief, replied, "Weep not, good Melvil, there is at present greater cause for rejoicing. Thou shalt this day see Mary Stuart delivered from all her cares, and such an end put to her tedious sufferings as she has long expected. Bear witness that I die constant in my religion, firm in my fidelity towards Scotland, and unchanged in my affection towards France. Commend me to my son. Tell him I have done nothing injurious to his kingdom, to his honour, or to his rights; and God forgive all those who have thirsted without cause for my blood!"—She beheld the whole apparatus of death with an unaltered countenance; and, signing herself with the cross, she sat down in a chair, whilst the warrant for execution was read, and the Dean of Peterborough was employed in devotions, in which she declared that she could not conscientiously join. Falling on her knees, she repeated a Latin prayer, and afterwards, in the English tongue, recommended unto God the afflicted state of the church, praying for prosperity to her son, and for a long and peaceable reign to Elizabeth. She then declared that she hoped for mercy only through the death of Christ, at the foot of whose image she now willingly shed her blood; and lifting up and kissing the crucifix, she thus addressed it:—"As thy arms, O Jesus! were extended on the cross; so, with the outstretched arms of thy mercy, receive me, and forgive my sins." She now began to prepare for the block, by taking off her veil and upper garments; and one of the executioners rudely endeavouring to assist, she gently checked him, and said, with a smile, that she had not been accustomed to undress before so many spectators, nor to be served by such valets. With calm but undaunted fortitude she laid her neck on the block; and while one of the executioners held her hands, the other, at the second stroke, cut off her head, which, falling out of its attire, discovered her hair already grown quite gray with cares and sorrows. The executioner held it up still streaming with blood, and the Dean of Peterborough cried out, "So perish all Queen Elizabeth's enemies!" The Earl of Kent alone answered "Amen!" The rest of the spectators were drowned in tears, being incapable, at that moment, of any other sentiments but those of pity or admiration. Such was the tragical death of Mary, queen of Scots, on the 8th of February 1587, in the forty-fifth year of her age, almost nineteen years of which she passed in captivity.

7. To all the charms of beauty, this princess added other accomplishments, which render their impression irresistible. She was polite, affable, insinuating, sprightly, and capable of speaking and writing with equal ease and dignity; though she was violent in her passions and attachments, and an amiable woman rather than an illustrious queen. The vivacity of her spirit, not sufficiently tempered with judgment, and the warmth of her heart, which was not at all times under the restraint of discretion, betrayed her both into errors and into crimes. Humanity will draw a veil over this part of her character, which it cannot approve, and may perhaps prompt some to impute her actions to her situation rather than to her disposition. After her death, none of her women were permitted to come near her body, which lay for some days in a room, covered with a coarse cloth torn from a billiard-table: after which, Elizabeth ordered it to be buried, with royal magnificence, in the cathedral of Peterborough. James, upon his accession to the British throne, removed it thence to Westminster Abbey.

8. The English sovereign affected to receive the account of her victim's death with the most lively emotions of surprise and concern; sighs, tears, lamentation, and mourning, were all employed to obtain credit to her counterfeit sorrow; and she now pretended that the Queen of Scots had been put to death without her knowledge. To add to this solemn farce, she banished most of her councillors out of her sight; she treated Burleigh, her prime minister, so harshly, that he begged leave to resign; and she brought Davison to trial, fined him ten thousand pounds, and then imprisoned him. This dissimulation furnished her with an apology to the northern king, who was filled with grief and resentment on hearing of his mother's fate; but consciousness of his own weakness, and fear of being excluded from the throne of England, all induced him to repress his resentment.

EXERCISES.

1. What discovery was made which proved fatal to Mary? Whom did Elizabeth appoint as commissioners to try her?

2. How did Mary act on receiving information of such proceedings? How did the commissioners persuade her to stand her trial?

3. What charges were exhibited against her? What reply did she make to these charges? What sentence was pronounced upon her?

4. How did James act on learning his mother's danger? How were all his schemes for her safety defeated?

5. What means were used to alarm the people of England? How did Elizabeth act on signing the death-warrant? Who received orders to see the sentence put in execution?

6. How did Mary spend the short interval which remained of her life? Who attended her to the scaffold? How did she console Melvil? In what manner was she affected with the apparatus of death? How did she die?

7. What was Mary's character? Where was she buried?

8. In what manner did Elizabeth receive the account of Mary's death? How did she treat her own ministers? How did James behave?

SECTION XI.

1. IN order to put an end to the deadly feuds which subsisted between many of the great families, James invited the chiefs to a royal entertainment, at which they promised to bury their dissensions in oblivion; and they afterwards marched to the cross of Edinburgh in pairs, each hand in hand with his enemy. Here a collation of wine and sweetmeats was prepared, and they drank to each other's health with all the signs of reciprocal forgiveness and future friendship; but unhappily the effects of this apparent reconciliation were not correspondent either to the generous endeavours of the king, or to the fond wishes of the people. He afterwards called a parliament, at which all the laws enacted in favour of the protestant religion since the Reformation were ratified, and severe statutes passed against the priests and jesuits. With a view also to aid the public revenue, all the church-lands were annexed to the crown; but this afforded little relief, in consequence of the natural facility of his majesty's temper, which yielded to the solicitations of his servants, and gratified their most extravagant demands. He now made a change in the parliament, by reviving the act of 1428, which dispensed with the personal attendance of the lesser barons, and empowered each county to choose two commissioners to represent them in that national assembly.—This year, 1587, the King of Spain, having taken offence at the political conduct of Elizabeth, resolved to invade her dominions with a powerful armament. In order to facilitate this design, he was desirous to conclude an alliance with the Scots, and by his agents used every endeavour to gain the nobility, as well as to excite James to revenge his mother's death; but this monarch had the prudence to reject the proposed measure as highly dangerous. In pursuance of the same line of policy, he drove the Spanish emissaries out of the kingdom; denounced the party whom they had seduced to their interests; refused to admit into his presence an ambassador from the pope; raised troops; put his country in a state of defence, and determined to act in concert with England against the common enemy of the protestant faith. At the same time, a bond or covenant, containing a confession of true doctrine, and a solemn renunciation of the errors of popery, was formed for the maintenance of the reformed religion and the defence of the government, which was subscribed

by the sovereign himself, the nobles, the clergy, and by many persons of the lower ranks.

2. After a preparation of many years, the King of Spain sent against Elizabeth a formidable fleet, the greatest that had ever appeared on the ocean. On the 29th of May 1588, it sailed from Lisbon, with numerous land-forces on board, and arrived in the Channel on the 29th of July. By the blessing of Providence, which watched over the protestant religion and the liberties of Britain, the English fleet, under the Earl of Effingham and Sir Francis Drake, boldly attacked the Spaniards, took or destroyed several of their largest galleons, and totally dispersed the Armada, on which the name of *invincible* had been arrogantly bestowed. After being driven out of the Channel, the enemy were forced to steer their course homewards by the Orkneys and the Irish Sea; many of them suffered shipwreck on those dangerous coasts; and only a small and shattered remnant reached their native ports. On this occasion, James displayed his wonted benevolence by receiving seven hundred individuals who were cast on shore by a tempest, supplying them with necessaries, and then permitting them to return to their own land. Philip, after the destruction of his mighty host, determined to invade Scotland from the Low Countries. With this view he remitted money thither, and gained over Huntly, Crawford, and Errol, who engaged, with the aid of six thousand men, to make him master of the kingdom. This conspiracy, however, being discovered, these noblemen threw themselves upon the royal mercy; and, after a short confinement, they were all pardoned.

3. After this event, James paid his addresses to Anne, second daughter of the King of Denmark; and, notwithstanding the opposition of Elizabeth, and of certain individuals in his own court, the Earl-marischal was sent to Copenhagen, at the head of a splendid embassy, with ample powers to conclude the engagement. The marriage-articles were quickly agreed upon, and the young queen set sail for Scotland, where great preparations were made for her reception; but having encountered a violent storm at sea, she was driven back to Norway. Feeling with the utmost sensibility this unexpected disappointment, the king instantly fitted out some ships, and, accompanied by a train of three hundred persons, immediately sailed in quest of his bride. He arrived safely at Opslo (Christiania), where the marriage was solemnized; after which he spent the winter in the capital, amidst continual feasting and amusements. During his absence, too, the nobles, the clergy, and the people vied with each

other in loyalty and obedience; and no period of his reign was more remarkable for tranquillity. On their arrival at Leith, the 1st of May 1590, the royal couple were received by their subjects with every demonstration of joy; after which, the solemnity of the queen's coronation was conducted with great magnificence, the crown being put upon her head by Mr Robert Bruce, a presbyterian minister.

4. About this time the Earl of Bothwell was thrown into prison, and accused of treason, for raising, by means of certain witches, a storm which had endangered the life of his majesty. Having made his escape, he assembled his followers, and, in revenge, attacked the palace; but whilst he was setting fire to the doors, an alarm was given to the citizens, who ran to their sovereign's assistance, so that the earl did not without difficulty avoid the effects of their resentment. In order to apprehend the traitor, James granted a commission to Lord Huntly to pursue him with a competent force; but that nobleman, under colour of executing the king's orders, gratified his private enmity by slaying the Earl of Murray, and burning his house to the ground. This horrid crime excited universal indignation; the inhabitants of Edinburgh rising in a body threatened the king and his ministers, who retired to Glasgow. There Huntly surrendered, threw himself on the royal mercy, and thereby escaped the punishment which he was thought to have justly deserved. The Assembly now petitioned parliament for the repeal of the severe laws passed against the church in 1584, and obtained their request. The king likewise permitted the same body completely to establish the presbyterian form of government, by general assemblies, provincial synods, local presbyteries, and kirk-sessions.

5. About this time another conspiracy was discovered, the object of which was to deliver up the nation into the hands of the King of Spain, to establish the Roman Catholic religion, and to invade England. The partisans of this nefarious plot were the Earls of Angus, Huntly, Errol, Sir David Graham of Fintry, Barclay of Ladyland, and George Kerr. Graham was taken and executed; the rest were summoned to surrender, but fled to the mountains. A promise of pardon was afterwards given them on the condition of their returning to their allegiance; but having refused to accept it, the king, incited by the clergy and the English ambassador, levied an army and marched against them, wasted their lands and seized their castles. Being thus reduced to great distress, they took refuge in foreign countries. In the meantime, Bothwell, abandoned by the Queen of England, and excommunicated by the church, fled to France, and thence to Spain

and Italy, where he renounced the protestant religion, and passed an obscure life in great indigence. Shortly after, Chancellor Maitland died. He was an able minister, highly esteemed by the king, and had long sustained the whole weight of public affairs. As a proof of his regard for him James wrote a poem in honour of his memory.

6. The important trust of levying the public revenues was now committed to eight lawyers, namely, Alexander Seaton, president of the Court of Session; Walter Stewart, commendator of Blantyre and lord-privy-seal; David Carnegie, John Lindsay, James Elphinstone, Thomas Hamilton, John Skene, clerk-register; and Peter Young, eleemosynar. These commissioners, called *octavians* from their number, contrived to engross the whole executive part of the government, and, notwithstanding a combination of the nobles against them, preserved their power by the order and economy which they introduced into the administration of the finances.

7. After some time, the popish lords presented a petition to the king for liberty to return home; on receiving which he called a parliament, by whose advice he granted their request, under the apprehension that they might oppose his accession to the throne of England. His conduct, however, excited the alarm of the protestant clergy; for which reason their committee at Edinburgh wrote circular letters to all the presbyteries, commanding them to excommunicate the catholics, and to make choice of the most eminent ministers to reside in the metropolis, to form a standing council of the church, and watch over its interests. David Black, minister of St Andrews, was charged with affirming in the pulpit, "that the king had permitted the popish lords to return, and thus discovered the treachery of his own heart; that all kings were the devil's children; that Satan had the guidance of the court; that Elizabeth was an atheist, and the queen nothing better!" Having learned that this zealous divine was accused of such violent expressions, James commanded him to be summoned before the privy-council; but, as the clergy espoused his cause, he refused to appear. He was therefore pronounced guilty, and ordered to reside beyond the Spey during the royal pleasure. After this sentence, in 1596, while his majesty was in the great hall of the Tolbooth, where the Court of Session was sitting, the citizens, in a tumultuous manner, presented to him a petition, craving the redress of their grievances. The manner in which this document was presented, as well as its contents, greatly offended him. He gave a haughty reply to the petitioners, who insisted warmly on their claims; but a crowd rushing

into the hall, he retired abruptly into another apartment, and ordered the door to be instantly shut. When the deputies returned to the multitude, and reported that the king had refused to listen to their request, they were filled with rage; some called for their arms; some to bring out the wicked Haman; others cried aloud, "The sword of the Lord and of Gideon!" Instigated by their violent feelings, they even threatened his person, and demanded some of the councillors, whom they named, to be delivered over to their immediate vengeance. In this emergency, James attempted to sooth the petitioners, by promising to listen to their requests when presented in a regular manner. The magistrates of the city, partly by force, partly by authority, endeavoured to quell the tumult; and the ministers, sensible of their own rashness in kindling such a flame, seconded both these means of extinguishing it. The rage of the populace now subsiding as suddenly as it had risen, they all dispersed, and the monarch returned to his palace, happy in having escaped from an insurrection which had exposed his life to imminent danger.

8. James, regarding this treatment on the part of the inhabitants as an unpardonable affront to his authority, immediately withdrew, with his attendants, to Linlithgow; requiring all the courts to follow him, and to leave a city where it was no longer consistent either with their safety or their dignity to remain. The noblemen and barons were also commanded by him to return to their own houses, and not to reassemble without his permission. This vigorous conduct struck a damp into the spirits of his adversaries. The citizens, sensible how much they would suffer by the king's absence and the removal of the courts of justice, quickly repented of their violent proceedings. The ministers alone resolved to maintain the contest. They endeavoured to prevent the nobles from dispersing; inflamed the people by violent invectives against the sovereign; and laboured to procure subscriptions to an association for their mutual defence. Knowing also what lustre and power the junction of some of the higher aristocracy would add to their cause, they wrote to Lord Hamilton, begging that he would become their leader, and protect the suffering church. His lordship, on receiving their letter, instead of complying with the desires expressed in it, carried it to the king, whom this new insult irritated to such a degree, that he commanded the magistrates instantly to seize their ministers, as manifest incendiaries and encouragers of rebellion. These functionaries, to regain the favour of their master, were preparing to obey; and the ministers, who saw no other hope of safety, fled to England. This

unsuccessful contest tended to establish the royal authority. A parliament was immediately called, who denounced every one engaged in it as guilty of high treason; and required every minister to subscribe a declaration of his submission to the king's jurisdiction, in all matters, civil and criminal. Not content with having carried this measure, James resolved to inflict signal punishment on the inhabitants of Edinburgh, who were declared to have forfeited their privileges as a corporation, and to be liable to all the penalties of treason. Though the magistrates expressed their submission to him in the most abject terms, he remained quite inexorable. The capital of the kingdom was in desolation and despair; the courtiers even threatened to rase it to the foundation, and to erect on its ruins a pillar, as a monument of the royal displeasure and the guilt of its inhabitants. At this critical juncture, Queen Elizabeth interposed in their favour; upon which the relenting monarch absolved them from the penalties of disobedience. He prohibited the citizens, however, from electing either magistrates or ministers; imposed on them several new burdens; and exacted from them a large sum of money as a peace-offering.

EXERCISES.

1. What plan did James adopt to put an end to the feuds existing among the nobility? What laws did he pass in parliament? What other measures did he adopt? How did he confirm the establishment of the church and state?

2. When did the Spanish Armada sail for England? Who commanded the English fleet? What became of the Armada? What Scottish nobles did Philip gain over to his interest?

3. Whom did James marry? How did his subjects testify their loyalty at this period?

4. What happened at this time to the Earl of Bothwell? What occasioned an insurrection at Edinburgh? What favour did James confer on the church?

5. What conspiracy was now discovered? How did James treat those who had formed it? What became of Bothwell and the chancellor?

6. Who got the charge of the public revenue? How did they dispose of it?

7. What cause excited a public commotion at this time? How did the citizens of Edinburgh treat James?

8. To what place did he withdraw his court? How did the clergy behave on this occasion? To whom did they address a letter for assistance? What was the result of it? What punishment did James intend to inflict on the citizens of Edinburgh? Who interposed in their behalf?

SECTION XII.

1. By means of promises, flattery, and threats, James procured a majority of the clergy to vote that the convoking of the General Assembly, without his consent, was unlawful. They likewise admitted that the right of nominating ministers to the principal towns belonged to the crown; and in all other respects conformed to his wishes. Influenced by

similar motives they farther petitioned parliament to allow representatives from their body to have seats in that supreme court. To this request the legislature acceded; upon which a great debate took place among the churchmen, whether they should avail themselves of the privilege. After long deliberation, they appointed fifty-one members to be chosen in the following manner:—They agreed to recommend six persons to every vacant prelacy, who should be candidates for a seat in parliament; out of which number the king should nominate one. The following were the restrictions laid on the representative:—That he should not assent to any thing that might affect the interest of the church, without special instructions; that he should be answerable for his conduct to the General Assembly; that he should officiate in a particular congregation; that he should have no ecclesiastical jurisdiction superior to his brethren; and that he should annually resign his commission to the Assembly, who might or might not restore it as they should judge proper, with the king's approbation.

2. James, in order to secure his succession to the southern throne, despatched ambassadors to foreign courts, to explain the justness of his title; whilst Edward Bruce, his ambassador at London, sounded the disposition of the nobles; many of whom gave assurances of their aid against every opposition. He afterwards published his well-known work entitled "*Basilicon Doron*," or "A Royal Gift," containing precepts on the art of government, and addressed to Prince Henry, his son. This production, which displayed considerable research, obtained the admiration of many learned men, and impressed the English with a high opinion of his abilities. The pope also expressed favourable sentiments of him, and of his title as the heir presumptive to the house of Tudor; circumstances which, coupled with his clemency towards the catholics, induced Elizabeth to observe his conduct with the greatest solicitude.

3. Shortly after, in 1600, John Ruthven, earl of Gowry, and his brother Alexander, concerted a plan to assassinate the king. With this design, after a hunting-match at Falkland, the latter informed his royal visiter that he had discovered a person in disguise, of a very suspicious appearance, carrying a great quantity of gold about him, whom he had seized, and confined in his brother's castle at Perth. The king being entreated to proceed thither, in order to examine the prisoner, complied with the wishes of the earl, carrying with him the Duke of Lennox, the Earl of Mar, and about twenty others. Soon after his arrival, while his retinue were

partaking of a repast in an adjoining apartment, Gowry requested his majesty to follow him privately; and leading him up a staircase, through several rooms, the doors of which he locked behind him, came at last to a small study, where there stood a man in armour, with a sword and dagger by his side. At this strange sight James started back; but the earl, snatching the dagger, held it to his breast, saying,—“Remember how unjustly my father suffered by your command; you are my prisoner; submit to my disposal, without resistance or outcry, or this dagger shall instantly revenge his blood!” In this critical juncture the royal captive made use of expostulations, entreaties, and flattery; upon which the nobleman left him in charge of the armed man, to seek for his brother. In the meantime, the king’s attendants became impatient, and, on inquiring whither he had retired, one of the servants entered the room hastily, and told them that his majesty had just ridden off towards Falkland. All of them rushed out into the street; and the earl, with the utmost eagerness, called for their horses.—Meantime Alexander Ruthven had found his way into the mysterious chamber where the king was detained, and swearing now there was no remedy and that he must die, proceeded to bind his hands. Unarmed as the latter was, he scorned to submit to such an indignity, but closed with the assassin, and a fierce struggle ensued. The man in armour stood amazed and motionless; and the king, dragging Ruthven towards an open window, cried, with a wild and affrighted voice,—“Treason! Help! I am murdered.”

4. His attendants, hearing his cries, and seeing at the window a hand which grasped his neck with violence, flew with precipitation to his assistance. Lennox and Mar, with the greater number of the nobles, ran up the principal staircase, where, finding all the doors shut, they proceeded to batter them with the utmost fury in order to force a passage. But Sir John Ramsay, ascending by a back stair, found the door of the apartment open; and seizing Ruthven, who was still struggling with the king, struck him twice with his dagger, and thrust him towards the entrance, where Sir Thomas Erskine and Sir Hugh Herries met and killed him. He exclaimed with his last breath, “Alas! I am not to blame for this action!” On the death of his brother, Gowry rushed into the room, with a drawn sword in each hand, followed by seven of his people, well armed, and, with a loud voice, threatened the defenders of the king with instant destruction. These immediately thrust James into a small study, and, shutting the door upon him, encountered the hostile

party, notwithstanding the inequality of numbers. Sir John Ramsay pierced the earl through the heart, who instantly fell without uttering a word; and his followers, having received several wounds, immediately fled. Some of the king's friends were also hurt in this conflict; but, nevertheless, rushing to the apartment where he was, to their great joy they found him quite safe, when, falling on his knees, with all his attendants around him, he offered solemn thanks to God for such a wonderful deliverance.

5. Their danger, however, was not yet over, as the inhabitants of the town (with whom Gowry was extremely popular), hearing of his fate, ran to arms, and surrounded the castle, threatening revenge. His majesty endeavoured to pacify them, by speaking to them from a window, and also by admitting the magistrates, to whom he fully detailed the circumstances of the case; on which, their fury subsiding by degrees, they dispersed, and he returned to Falkland. Three of the earl's accomplices were afterwards condemned and executed at Perth; and diligent search being made for the person concealed in the study, Andrew Henderson, the steward, upon a promise of pardon, acknowledged himself to be the man. From their confessions, however, it appeared that they were totally ignorant of the motives which had prompted their master to so base a deed; so that the whole transaction continued to be involved in impenetrable mystery. An act of parliament was passed, by which the honours and estates of Gowry and his brother were forfeited, and the surname of Ruthven for ever abolished. The fifth of August was appointed to be annually observed as a day of thanksgiving, for the king's deliverance from so imminent a danger. After the singular occurrence now described, James made many wise regulations for the civilisation of the Highlanders; enacting that all chiefs of clans were to give hostages, not only for their own good behaviour, but for all upon their estates. He likewise planted colonies among them, and built certain towns as nurseries for arts and commerce.

6. Early in 1603, Elizabeth was seized with an indisposition, which seemed to arise from a settled and incurable melancholy. Various conjectures were formed respecting its cause; some imputed it to her being forced to pardon the Earl of Tyrone, who had rebelled against her; others imagined that it arose from observing the ingratitude of her courtiers, who, beholding her declining health with the utmost indifference, looked forward to the accession of the Scottish king with an impatience which they could not conceal; but the most probable opinion was, that it arose from her grief for the

death of Essex, who had been condemned for high treason, and whose name she seldom mentioned without tears.—Her spirits at last sunk entirely; she would scarcely taste food, and refused all the medicines prescribed by her physicians, declaring that she wished to die, and would live no longer. No entreaty could prevail on her to go to bed; she sat on cushions during ten days and nights, pensive and silent, holding her finger almost constantly in her mouth, with her eyes open and fixed on the ground. She, however, joined with great apparent fervour in those acts of devotion which were performed in her apartment by the Archbishop of Canterbury.—Wasted at last, as well by anguish of mind as by long abstinence, she expired without a struggle, on the twenty-fourth of March, in the seventieth year of her age and forty-fifth of her reign. The English historians, after celebrating the love of this queen for her people; her sagacity in discerning their true interest, and her steadiness in pursuing it; her wisdom in the choice of her ministers; the glory she acquired by arms; the tranquillity she secured to her subjects; and the increase of fame, of riches, and of commerce, which were the fruits of all these, justly rank her among the most illustrious princes. Even the defects of her character, they observe, were not of a kind prejudicial to the public welfare. The Scottish historian, however, frequently finds himself obliged to view her in a very different and a much less amiable light. Her crafty intrigues rendered the northern kingdom long the seat of discord, confusion, and bloodshed, and, effecting what the valour of her ancestors could not achieve, reduced it to a state of dependence on the English throne. Her behaviour to Mary exhibited innumerable instances of dissimulation without necessity, and of severity beyond example. In most of her actions, she is, no doubt, worthy of great admiration; but in her conduct towards her unfortunate relative, she laid aside at once the magnanimity which became a queen, and the feelings natural to a woman. A short time before her death, she broke the silence which she had so long preserved with respect to her heir, and told Cecil and the lord-admiral, “That her throne was the throne of kings; that she would have no mean person to ascend it, and that her cousin the king of Scots should be her successor.” After her decease, accordingly, the lords of the council proclaimed James sovereign of England, whilst two noblemen were despatched to Edinburgh with a letter to his majesty, signed by all the peers and privy-councillors then in London, informing him of the queen’s demise, and of his accession to the throne.

7. On receiving this intelligence, he caused his titles to be

publicly announced, and committing the care of his children to different noblemen, he prepared to take possession of his new kingdom. Previous to his departure, he proceeded to the church of St Giles; where, after sermon, he addressed the people in a speech full of affection and regard for his native country, which no circumstances, he declared, would ever alter; assuring them that his ear would be always open to their petitions, which he would answer with the love and alacrity of a parent. His words were often interrupted by the tears of the whole audience; who, though they exulted in his prosperity, were melted into sorrow by these tender declarations. James left Edinburgh on the fifth of April, with a splendid but not a numerous train, and, amidst the acclamations of all ranks in the counties through which he passed, entered London on the seventh of May, and took peaceable possession of the vacant throne. By this auspicious event the two crowns were joined in the person of one sovereign; and, by the union of their strength and resources, Great Britain hath risen to a degree of power and authority in Europe which the two countries separately could never have attained. Dazzled with the glory of giving a ruler to their ancient enemy, relying on the partiality of their native prince, and hoping to share in the wealth and honours he would now be able to bestow, the Scots at that period attended little to the most obvious consequences of this great event.

EXERCISES.

1. By what means did James procure a majority of the clergy to support his measures? What enactments did the Assembly make? What privileges did the clergy obtain from parliament?
2. What book did James publish? What credit did it obtain for him?
3. Who concerted a plan to assassinate him? What resistance did the king make?
4. How was he rescued? What became of Gowry?
5. What happened afterwards in the town of Perth? What endeavours did James make to civilize the Highlanders?
6. When did Queen Elizabeth die? What were the circumstances accompanying her death? What was her character? What took place after her decease?
7. What arrangements did James make upon his accession to the throne of England? What address did he make in the church of St Giles? When did he leave Edinburgh? What impression did this auspicious event make upon the Scots?

PERIOD V.

SECTION I.

1. JAMES was desirous, upon his accession, in 1603, to unite the two kingdoms; for which purpose he appointed commissioners,

who at length agreed to certain articles, which were laid before the two parliaments; but national prejudices were still too strong to permit so salutary a project to be carried into execution. He next attempted to destroy the presbyterian form of church-government in Scotland, and to introduce episcopacy in its room. With this view, he evaded the urgent wishes of the clergy to meet in their General Assembly, and continued to augment the revenues and splendour of the bishops. This conduct so much irritated the leading ministers, that, by their own authority, they convened an Assembly at Aberdeen. Such an exertion of ecclesiastical power was pronounced rebellion; in consequence of which, several of the members were seized, tried, and condemned, and six of them banished during their whole lives.

2. Notwithstanding these symptoms of opposition, the king still persisted in his design to establish prelacy; and, in a parliament held at Perth, in which the Earl of Montrose presided as royal commissioner, the bishops were restored to their honours, their seats in the legislature, and their episcopal estates. At first, the opposite party strongly remonstrated against these proceedings; but fear, flattery, and promises, gradually prevailed, and, in a short time, the true presbyterian constitution of church-government was almost entirely subverted. James, however, did not find the same difficulty in conducting the civil administration; for the parliament readily granted such subsidies as they could afford, and all quarrels or feuds which arose among the nobles were easily suppressed.

3. In order to unite more closely the Scottish with the English church, James prevailed on Spottiswood, archbishop of Glasgow; Hamilton, bishop of Galloway; and Lamb, bishop of Brechin, to accept consecration from the hands of the southern bishops. Shortly afterwards, the Earl of Orkney, being disgusted at some orders of government, rebelled; but being besieged in Kirkwall by the Earl of Caithness, was taken prisoner, condemned, and executed.

4. After an absence of fourteen years, James in 1617 revisited Scotland, for the purpose of settling the affairs of the church. Although General Assemblies had been called under royal authority, yet the bishops had gradually established a high commission court to supersede them, and to mature this was the chief object of his present visit. Accordingly, on the thirteenth of June, the parliament met at Edinburgh, and, after much opposition, passed an act, whereby the king, archbishops, bishops, and such ministers as the prelates might choose to consult, were invested with supreme power in eccle-

siastical matters. Simpson, Calderwood, and other clergymen, who were neither to be soothed nor awed, were imprisoned and banished; after which episcopal worship was performed in the chapel-royal, accompanied by vocal and instrumental music. Justices of the peace and constables were now for the first time appointed; and many salutary acts passed for the administration of justice.

5. After the king's return to London, the Scottish ministry called a General Assembly at Perth, where they hoped to obtain a majority ready to sanction the late innovations as the legal constitution of the church. These hopes were not disappointed. The Assembly, after great opposition, gave the sanction to five usages adopted from the Church of England:—1. That the Lord's supper should be received kneeling. 2. That the same sacrament should be administered privately to the sick, at their request. 3. That baptism might be administered in private. 4. That children should receive confirmation, when arrived at the proper age. 5. That the anniversaries of the nativity, the passion, the resurrection, the ascension of Christ, and the descent of the Holy Ghost, should be observed as solemn days. These five articles were afterwards ratified by the parliament, which met in 1621.

6. James next acquiesced in a scheme for planting a colony in North America; and conferred upon a number of the first adventurers the title of "Knights Baronets of Nova Scotia;" the whole being under the care of Sir William Alexander, afterwards Earl of Stirling. Soon after this event, the king died of an ague, on the twenty-seventh March 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign over England.—He was a prince endowed with many eminent qualifications, and possessed of considerable learning; not deficient in moral fortitude and courage; averse to war; and an encourager of manufactures and commerce; but attached to favourites, who obtained an undue influence over him.

7. He was succeeded by his son Charles I., who ascended the throne amidst the general approbation of his subjects, and shortly after married Henrietta, daughter of the King of France.—Some of the Scottish clergy, offended at the late changes, petitioned his majesty against the five articles of Perth, but received an unfavourable answer; after which he wrote to Spottiswood, archbishop of St Andrews, to support the form of ecclesiastical government as by law established. Symptoms of discontent soon began to appear; on discovering which the council issued a proclamation, menacing with condign punishment all such as should attempt to disturb the order of the episcopal church. A new administration was formed,

in which the Earl of Nithsdale represented the king; Spottiswood, the primate, was created chancellor; the Bishop of Ross was nominated treasurer; and nine of the other prelates were made privy-councillors. These promotions, which the churchmen did not always enjoy with becoming modesty, disgusted the haughty nobles, and contributed strongly to raise up a party against the royal authority.

8. Charles soon afterwards found himself at variance with his parliament; and his own imprudent conduct, as well as the despotism of his minister, the Duke of Buckingham, daily increased the enmity between them, till at last it broke out in all the violence of a civil war.—Determined to give assistance to Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, styled the protestant hero, the king sent to the continent the Marquis of Hamilton, with an army of six thousand men, who gained honour both to themselves and their country by their gallant exploits. In order to refund the expense occasioned by this expedition, Charles, on his return, granted to the marquis, for the space of sixteen years, the custom upon sweet wines, one of the most valuable branches of the national revenue.

9. In the month of June 1633, the coronation of Charles as King of Scotland was celebrated at Edinburgh, amidst the greatest demonstrations of joy; after which the services of religion were performed with much splendour, according to the ritual of the Church of England, which the presbyterians witnessed with indignation. The parliament afterwards held a short session of ten days, at which the sovereign himself presided; many taxes were voted for the service of the crown; and the episcopal religion, with all its forms, received the sanction of the legislature. Charles now employed all his art to sooth his countrymen, by dealing out his honours with a liberal hand, erecting several boroughs, and granting patents to twenty individuals, whom he raised to the rank of nobility; notwithstanding which there was a powerful opposition to all his measures. He afterwards visited Linlithgow, Stirling, Dunfermline, Perth, and Falkland; but met with a violent storm in crossing the Forth, in which one of the boats, with several of his servants, and some plate and money, was lost. Shortly after he returned to London. Charles sincerely desired to promote the welfare of his subjects; but he was too eagerly bent on the attainment of uniformity in matters of religion; and, yielding to the suggestions of Archbishop Laud, an intemperate churchman, who kept him ignorant of the wishes of his people, he was precipitated into measures which finally proved his ruin.

EXERCISES.

1. What means did James employ to unite the two kingdoms? How did he attempt to alter the presbyterian form of church-government? What opposition did the clergy make? What was the consequence?
2. What steps did James take to introduce episcopacy? How did the presbyterians now act? How did James conduct the civil administration?
3. What measures did James pursue to unite the churches of England and Scotland? For what crime was the Earl of Orkney executed?
4. When did he revisit Scotland? What act did the parliament pass?
5. What articles did the Assembly at Perth introduce into the church?
6. What colony was founded in North America during James's reign? When did he die? What was his character?
7. Who succeeded James? Whom did Charles marry? What petition did the Scottish clergy present to him? What was the consequence? What changes took place in the administration?
8. On what terms did Charles stand with his parliament at this time? In what foreign expeditions did he now engage?
9. When was Charles's coronation celebrated in Scotland? What ensued after his coronation? What art did he employ to sooth the Scots? What towns did he visit? How was he unsuccessful in managing his Scottish subjects?

SECTION II.

1. CHARLES, having determined to persevere in his religious innovations, attempted to introduce the liturgy into the public worship of the nation. To defeat this object, a plan was secretly concerted by Alexander Henderson, minister of Leuchars, and David Dickson, minister of Irvine, who, with several others, came to Edinburgh on the occasion. Accordingly, on the 23d of July 1637, the day appointed by the privy-council for commencing the use of the service-book, as it was called, in St Giles's church, as soon as the Dean, arrayed in his surplice, began to read (the bishop himself and many of the privy-council being present), a multitude in the church, clapping their hands, and crying out, "A pope! a pope! Antichrist! stone him!" raised such a tumult, that it was impossible to proceed. The bishop mounted the pulpit in order to appease them; but immediately three old women, Euphemia Henderson, Bethia Craig, and Elspeth Craig, hurled the stools on which they sat at his head. The council also was insulted; and it was with the greatest difficulty that the magistrates, partly by authority, partly by force, expelled the rioters and shut the doors. The multitude, however, did not disperse; the tumult still continued without; stones were thrown at the doors and windows; and, when the service was ended, the bishops were attacked on their way home, and narrowly escaped from the enraged mob. In the afternoon, the keeper of the privy-seal, because he had the Bishop of Edinburgh in his coach, was so pelted with stones, hooted at with execrations,

and pressed upon by the eager populace, that if his servants, with drawn swords, had not kept them off, the life of his Reverence would have been exposed to the most imminent danger. Some days after, the Bishop of Galloway was attacked in the streets, and chased into the chamber where the privy-council were sitting. The council itself was besieged, and violently attacked; the city authorities met with the same fate; and nothing could have saved their lives, but an application to some popular lords, who protected them, and dispersed the multitude. In all other parts of Scotland the liturgy met with a similar reception. Wherever its introduction was attempted, tumult and insurrection were excited. Many ministers, therefore, refused or delayed to read it.

2. Enraged at this opposition, the privy-council ordered Henderson and Bruce, two of the recusant clergymen, to comply with the injunction, under the penalties of law. They were, however, extricated from this difficulty by Lord Balmerino and Sir Thomas Hope, two of the members, who secretly advised them to supplicate their body to suspend these rigorous measures, until the king should be informed of the temper of the nation. They immediately adopted this expedient; whereupon a number of the councillors, wishing to humble the pride of the bishops, granted their petition. In consequence of this compliance on the part of the council, all the leaders of the presbyterians, the Earls of Rothes, Cassillis, Eglinton, Home, Lothian, and Weymss; the Lords Lindsay, Yester, Balmerino, Cranstoun, and Loudon, immediately met, and prepared an address against the liturgy and episcopal government. Not content with this, they proceeded to form themselves into four tables; one consisting of nobility, another of gentry, a third of ministers, a fourth of burgesses; and despatched messengers throughout the kingdom, summoning all their friends to join their banners, which orders were every where obeyed with the utmost alacrity. Charles, in answer to their petition, while he declared his willingness to grant pardon for the past, insisted upon their adoption of the liturgy, and implicit obedience for the future. The popular leaders, however, scorned pardon on such terms; and, as they were acquiring fresh strength, the Earl of Traquair repaired to London, to persuade his sovereign to yield to the storm. On receiving this advice, he despatched the Marquis of Hamilton into Scotland, as the bearer of further concessions.

3. In the meantime, the presbyterian chiefs pursued the most active measures for their own security. They solemnly renewed the national covenant, which was signed by vast

numbers of all ranks, engaging to adhere steadfastly to each other, and to persevere in their purpose through every hazard, till it should be finally and effectually accomplished. The Marquis of Hamilton, in the king's name, now offered to withdraw the service-book and canons; to connive at those who should not obey the five articles of Perth; to redress every grievance, ecclesiastical and civil; and to grant an indemnity for all that was past. These concessions, however, did not satisfy the insurgents, who demanded the abolition of every law respecting the affairs of the church which had been enacted since the accession of James VI. to the English throne. The marquis, desirous of peace, still employed every exertion to procure an accommodation; and, having persuaded Charles to withhold the sword, repaired to London, where his majesty agreed to every concession that did not imply the final abolition of episcopacy in Scotland.

4. Meanwhile the covenanters were pursuing their bold measures with a degree of energy which could not fail to command success, by inviting their friends from abroad, and collecting money and arms; so that, on Hamilton's return, he found them increasing their former demands. Having received fresh instructions, he summoned an assembly of the church to meet at Glasgow. In the meantime, in conjunction with the privy-council, he had collected subscriptions to a covenant against popery and in support of episcopacy, which, in a few days, was signed by twenty-eight thousand persons. At length the celebrated Assembly met on the 21st of November 1638, and consisted of two hundred and sixty commissioners from different presbyteries, universities, and boroughs. Henderson was chosen moderator. The Marquis of Hamilton, who represented the sovereign, sanctioned their proceedings for some days; but at last, when he saw that none of those ends which he had in view were to be obtained, he, in the name of his master, dissolved the meeting. This measure was foreseen and little regarded; the covenanters still continued their sittings, surrounded by an armed party of their adherents, and were joined by the Earl of Argyll, who became their head. Proceeding with their business, they boldly rescinded the acts of all the Assemblies during the last forty years, and deposed the whole of the bishops. Episcopacy, the high commission, the articles of Perth, the canons and the liturgy, were abolished and declared unlawful; and the whole fabric, which James and Charles for a long course of time had been rearing with so much care and policy, fell at once to the ground. Having finished this important business, the members quietly separated.

5. As there now remained no alternative, it was necessary to decide the contest by force of arms: with a view to which, General Lesly, a soldier of experience and abilities, and other officers in the King of Sweden's service, returned home to the assistance of the covenanters; and several vessels, loaded with arms and ammunition, also arrived for their use. They likewise sent envoys to foreign courts, soliciting their interposition; but their chief resource was in their own vigour and abilities. A permanent committee met at Edinburgh, who conducted all the preparations for war with the utmost activity and success; and the fortifications of Leith were begun and carried on with the greatest spirit. Besides the inferior orders, and those who laboured for hire, incredible numbers of volunteers, even noblemen and gentlemen, put their hands to this work, considering the manual employment to be dignified by the sanctity of the cause. Women too of rank and condition carried on their shoulders the rubbish requisite for completing the fortifications. In the meantime, Hamilton endeavoured to rouse the royal party, but in vain. Success attended the covenanters, and they now proceeded to realize their ulterior objects. Lord Huntly was taken prisoner by the Marquis of Montrose; Edinburgh Castle was seized by General Lesly, commander-in-chief, and Dumbarton Castle by the covenanters of the town; Dumfries also was taken.

6. On learning these proceedings, the king assembled twenty thousand men, and, on the 29th of May 1639, marched to York; while a squadron of twenty ships of war, commanded by the Marquis of Hamilton, arrived in the Forth, in order to divide the strength of the presbyterians. Reluctant, however, to draw the sword in a civil war, and unwilling to fight against his friends, many of whom were with the adverse party, the marquis entirely frustrated the purposes for which the fleet was equipped. The lords of the covenant now advanced with one army to Dunglas; stationed another at Kelso; and sent Montrose to subdue the Gordons, who had risen in the north. He quickly defeated Viscount Aboyne, and also forced the town of Aberdeen to surrender; after which Lesly, collecting a body of twenty-five thousand men, encamped at Dunse Law, to intercept the king's army. In this situation, Charles and the covenanters, dreading equally the event of a battle, showed a disposition to negotiate; upon which the latter sent the Earl of Dunfermline with a petition to his majesty, imploring him to hear them; which being graciously received, commissioners were appointed on both sides to arrange the basis of a treaty. Those on the part

of the sovereign were the Earls of Arundel, Essex, Holland, Salisbury, and Berkshire, with secretary Coke; whilst the insurgents appointed the Earls of Rothes and Dunfermline, Lord Loudon, Sir W. Douglas, the reverend A. Henderson, and Johnston, procurator for the Church. After a short conference, it was agreed that all the places taken by the popular party should be restored; that they should henceforth pay strict obedience to the laws; and that a parliament and assembly should be called to settle all differences. Matters being thus accommodated, the armies were disbanded.

EXERCISES.

1. What change did Charles make in the religious worship of the Scots? What took place on the introduction of the liturgy in Edinburgh? How did the multitude act towards the Bishop of Galloway, the privy-council, and the magistrates?

2. What steps did the privy-council take? What measures did the leaders of the presbyterians adopt? What did Charles now require of them? What was the consequence of his requisition?

3. How were the presbyterian chiefs now employed? What concessions were made to them by the Marquis of Hamilton? Were these satisfactory to the insurgents? To what further concessions did Charles agree?

4. What were the subsequent proceedings of the covenanters? What new exertions did Hamilton make? What alterations did the covenanters make in the late-established form of church-discipline?

5. What ultimate resolution did the covenanters adopt? What were their subsequent measures?

6. What steps did Charles take on learning these proceedings? How did the lords of the covenant act? What was the result of the contest betwixt the king and the covenanters?

SECTION III.

1. AFTER the conclusion of this treaty, Charles summoned the leaders of the covenant to attend him at Berwick; but, dreading his designs, a few only attended, of whom Montrose, who had been disgusted at Lesly's appointment to be commander-in-chief, was gained over to the king's party.—On the 12th day of August 1639, the General Assembly met at Edinburgh under the Earl of Traquair, who was appointed the royal commissioner. During their session the covenant was renewed; the abolition of episcopacy was confirmed; the whole train of their late proceedings justified; and all the acts of former Assemblies subsequent to the introduction of prelacy were annulled.—The parliament met afterwards on the 31st of August, in which Traquair also presided. The members were preparing to take away from the king the nomination of the lords of the articles,—to deprive him of the government of his principal castles,—to make the privy-council and other courts dependent on the legislature,—and to restrict the crown in conferring titles of honour. While they were

proceeding with these measures, their sitting was suddenly prorogued by the commissioner in his majesty's name,—a circumstance which inflamed the minds of the leaders to such a degree, that they immediately despatched Lord Loudon and the Earl of Dunfermline to court, to remonstrate against so violent a step.

2. On the arrival of these noblemen in London, a letter, addressed to the French king, and signed by the covenanting chiefs, was intercepted by Traquair, who conveyed it to his majesty. Charles, partly repenting of the large concessions he had made to the Scots, partly disgusted at their fresh insolence and unreasonable pretensions, seized this opportunity of breaking with them; and, charging Loudon with treason, for corresponding with France, he threw him into the Tower. His lordship alleged that the letter in question was written before the agreement, and had been finally thrown aside; although it is manifest that whether written before or after the treaty, the action was certainly treasonable. It was, however, in consequence of this severity towards a popular chief that the lords of the covenant resolved to invade England; and with this view, renewing the meeting of the states, they levied a land-tax for the support of the war, and mustered their armies. In order to meet the threatened danger, Charles applied to the government for aid; but without effect. He obtained, however, a large supply from the Irish parliament; borrowed three hundred thousand pounds from his courtiers, and forty thousand from the Spanish merchants; which sums, together with the ecclesiastical subsidies, enabled him to raise nineteen thousand foot and two thousand horse. At the head of this army he marched to York, having appointed the Earl of Northumberland to the command, in the duties of which he was assisted by Lord Strafford, who was recalled from Ireland for that purpose, and by Lord Conway, to whom was committed the charge of the cavalry. Charles at the same time blockaded the Scottish ports with his ships of war.

3. Hostilities soon commenced between the parties. Edinburgh Castle, which had been restored to the king, was again taken by the covenanters; Argyll quickly reduced the Earls of Athol and Airly; Munro, one of their major-generals, subdued the Gordons and Ogilvies; and the Earl of Nithsdale's castle was taken by Colonel Cochran. The presbyterians now followed up their success, and boldly advanced into England. In crossing the Tyne, they were attacked at Newburn, on the 28th of August 1640, by a body of six thousand men, under Conway, whom they drove back with considerable loss. This victory they improved, by taking possession of Newcastle,

Durham, and the adjacent country, where they levied contributions. After this defeat, the house of commons refused to give the monarch any farther assistance; and his affairs being now desperate, he agreed to a treaty which the Scots had solicited, and appointed sixteen noblemen to meet with eleven of their body at Ripon, where he was reduced to the necessity of submitting to whatever preliminaries they might demand. The treaty was transferred to Westminster, and there ratified; the invaders receiving an allowance of eight hundred and fifty pounds per day so long as they remained in the south. At a later period the English parliament voted to them 300,000 pounds for their brotherly assistance.

4. After the ratification of this treaty, Charles, in 1641, gave his daughter Mary in marriage to the Prince of Orange. The same year he came to Edinburgh, where a meeting of the states was held in the month of August, by which an ancient institution called the Lords of Articles, composed of eight bishops, eight lords, eight commissioners of counties, and eight burgesses, without whose consent no motion could be made in the legislature, was abolished. On the same occasion also an act was passed, that no man should be created a Scottish peer who possessed not five hundred pounds of annual rent in the kingdom; another law, fixing triennial parliaments, was adopted; also an act to prevent the king from issuing proclamations which enjoined obedience under the penalty of treason; and, finally, it was enacted, that no officers of state should in future be appointed but by the advice and approbation of parliament. With a view to conciliate the affections of his Scottish subjects, the king ratified the covenant, and conformed himself entirely to the presbyterian church; bestowed pensions and preferments on Henderson, Gillespy, and other popular preachers; and created Argyll a marquis, Loudon an earl, and Lesly earl of Leven; the last of whom received for his services ten thousand pounds out of the three hundred thousand obtained from England. At this period, his majesty was obliged to overlook the Earl of Montrose and his own friends, who with difficulty escaped punishment. Commissioners from the south also attended this parliament, in order, as it was pretended, to see the articles of pacification fulfilled; but really to act as spies upon the conduct of their royal master, and to prevent him from obtaining the support of the Scots against the opposition which threatened him in the south.

5. This year (1641), a melancholy scene attracted the public attention. Roger More, an Irish gentleman, formed the project of expelling the English, and asserting the independence of his native country; for which purpose he went secretly from

chieftain to chieftain, and engaged many of them to take part in his enterprise. On the day previous to the commencement of hostilities, Dublin was saved by the confession of one of the conspirators; but Sir Phelim O'Neil took up arms in Ulster, and began a universal massacre of the settlers, accompanied by cruelties the most barbarous that are recorded in the history of any nation. The unfortunate inhabitants had no time to employ any defensive measures; and being surprised in the midst of profound peace and full security, they were put to death by their nearest neighbours, with whom they had long maintained an intercourse of good offices. No age, nor sex, nor condition was spared; the wife, weeping for her butchered husband, and embracing her helpless children, was subjected to the same miserable fate. The old, the young, the vigorous, and the infirm, were all consigned to a common destruction. Nor was death the only punishment inflicted by these rebels. All the tortures which wanton cruelty could devise,—all the lingering pains of body, anguish of mind, and agonies of despair, could not satiate their savage revenge. Even the weaker sex, naturally tender, emulated their more robust companions in the various methods of inflicting pain; and children, taught and encouraged by their parents, aimed their feeble blows at the dead carcasses or defenceless infants of their unhappy victims. Such was their phrensy, that even the cattle, because they belonged to the English, were wantonly slaughtered or turned loose to die, maimed and wounded, in the woods and moors!

6. Meanwhile the Roman Catholic priests, far from endeavouring to stop such dreadful enormities, encouraged them as highly meritorious; and, peculiarly ingenious in their barbarity, tempted their prisoners, with the promise of life, to imbrue their hands in the blood of friends, brethren, and parents! Having thus rendered them accomplices in guilt, these monsters inflicted on them that death which they now deserved, but sought to avoid; echoing with horrid exultation, in the ears of the expiring victims, that these were but the beginning of torments infinite and eternal. In the other provinces also the flames of rebellion were kindled. The natives, in some instances, pretended to act with moderation and humanity; but their humanity was only a different form of cruelty. Not content with expelling the English from their goodly manors, and wasting their cultivated fields, they stripped them of their very clothes, and turned them out naked and defenceless in the midst of a severe storm. The roads were covered with crowds in this melancholy state, hastening towards Dublin and other towns, which yet remained in the hands of their countrymen. The feeble women and

children soon sunk under the multiplied rigours of cold and hunger; husbands bidding a final adieu to their expiring families, envied them that fate which they themselves were so soon to share; and sons, who had long supported their aged parents, reluctantly abandoned them, for the preservation of their own lives, to a death which their most vigorous efforts could neither prevent nor delay. To the protection given them in the capital the remaining strangers owed their preservation. The gates of the city, though timorously opened, received the wretched supplicants, who presented to view a scene of human misery beyond what any eye had ever beheld. Compassion seized the amazed inhabitants; the more active of the unhappy fugitives (about three thousand) were enlisted; the rest were distributed into houses; and all care was taken, by diet and warmth, to recruit their feeble and torpid limbs. Diseases of unknown name and species, derived from these multiplied distresses, seized many, and put a speedy period to their lives.

7. By some computations, the number of those who perished by these cruelties is supposed to have been one hundred and fifty or two hundred thousand; but, even by the most moderate calculation, the persons who were actually assassinated amounted to upwards of forty thousand! The account of this massacre excited the utmost horror and alarm throughout Great Britain. The king was in Scotland when the appalling news arrived; and the covenanters, who determined to keep up their army, instantly made an offer of ten thousand men, to serve in Ireland against the popish insurgents.

EXERCISES.

1. What occurred after the conclusion of a treaty betwixt the king and the covenanters? When did the Assembly meet? What were its proceedings? What were the proceedings of parliament? Who prorogued the parliament? What was the consequence?
2. What induced Charles to put Lord Loudon in the Tower? What defensive measures did Charles adopt?
3. What success attended the presbyterians? What proceedings took place at Ripon? What sum was voted to the Scots by the English parliament?
4. To whom was the king's daughter married at this time? When did the Scottish parliament meet? What were its proceedings? What endeavours did Charles make to conciliate the affections of his Scottish subjects?
5. What melancholy event took place in Ireland? What measures did the English adopt? How were they treated by the Irish?
6. How did the Catholic priests act? What took place in the provinces? What were the consequences of the preservation of Dublin?
7. What number of the English perished? What offer did the covenanters make to the king?

SECTION IV.

1. CHARLES returned to London the morning after he had dissolved the parliament, disappointed in almost every object

for which he had visited his native country. Nor was the state of affairs in England at this period more agreeable; for there the flames of civil war already raged in all their fury, and the insurgents had even sent an embassy to the Scottish leaders soliciting a supply of soldiers to assist them against the monarch. In a matter of such delicacy, the latter at present declined sending any troops into England; but transported to Ireland, under General Munro, six thousand men, who were to be paid by their southern allies. Some time after this, in 1643, the parliament at Westminster having accepted the solemn league and covenant, engaged to extirpate episcopacy and to adopt the presbyterian form of church-government, an object which could not be effected without having recourse to arms. In this exigency, the parliamentary commissioners agreed to pay for the services of a certain number of Scottish troops; upon which an army of eighteen thousand infantry and three thousand cavalry, commanded by the Earl of Leven, immediately crossed the border.

2. In the meantime, the Marquis of Montrose, who had espoused the royal cause in the north, collected a body of twelve hundred Irishmen, with whom, aided by a number of Highlanders, he attacked the Earl of Tullibardine at Tippermuir, and defeated him with great slaughter, on the 1st of September 1644. In consequence of this victory, he obtained a supply of clothes, arms, and horses; took the town of Perth, defended by Lord Elcho with a garrison of five thousand; and afterwards marching to Aberdeen, obtained a second victory over Lord Burleigh, who had a superior force, consisting of two thousand five hundred men. On hearing of Montrose's success, the lords of the covenant raised another army, which they sent against him, under the command of Baillie and Urrey. But before the arrival of this reinforcement, he had defeated the Earl of Argyll at Inverlochy, in 1645, with the loss of fifteen hundred men, and ravaged his estates with great ferocity; he then took the town of Dundee by assault, and delivered it up to be plundered by his soldiers. The approach of the covenanting troops, however, put a stop to their ravages; Montrose instantly commenced his retreat, and having marched sixty miles in the face of an enemy much superior, at last secured himself among the hills. Baillie and Urrey having afterwards imprudently divided their forces, he attacked the latter at Auldearn, near Inverness, and completely defeated him.—The other now advanced to revenge his colleague's loss; but at Alford he himself met with a similar discomfiture. After so many victories, the royalist leader descended into the low countries, filled his

enemies with dismay, and obtained a sixth triumph at Kilsyth, whence the Highlanders, having loaded themselves with spoils, proceeded on their march homewards to deposit them with their families. This last event excited universal terror.—Some nobles fled to Ireland to recall the national forces, others to England, and many submitted to the conqueror, who now took possession of the principal towns. As the reward of his services, Charles appointed him captain-general and deputy-governor of Scotland; upon which he summoned a parliament to meet at Glasgow on the 29th of October 1645.

3. This prosperous state of the king's affairs, however, did not long continue. Lieutenant-general Lesly hastened from the south with his cavalry, and, seizing the Earls of Home and Roxburgh, marched forward to Philiphaugh, in the county of Selkirk, where the royalists were encamped. Without delay he commenced a furious attack, by which Montrose, after a spirited resistance, was overpowered and defeated with great slaughter. He himself with much difficulty escaped; and, being closely pursued, could not succeed in his exertions to raise a new army. At length, when the sovereign was compelled to order him to lay down his arms, he retired to France. Of the prisoners taken in the late action, a hundred Irish were selected and shot at a stake, in retaliation, it is said, for the massacre of which their countrymen had been guilty a few years before.

4. During these transactions, the English parliament, by an act dated 12th June 1643, called an assembly of learned divines, for settling the government of the church. Accordingly, ninety-eight of the most eminent clergymen from all parts of England, assisted by commissioners from Scotland, assembled at Westminster on the 1st of July, and compiled a system of doctrine, composed a directory for public worship, and formed a scheme of ecclesiastical constitution, which were approved by the General Assembly on the 27th of August 1647, and ratified by parliament on the 7th of February 1649. The Scottish members were, Alexander Henderson, Robert Douglas, and George Gillespie of Edinburgh; Samuel Rutherford of St Andrews, and Robert Baillie of Glasgow, ministers; John earl of Cassillis, John lord Maitland, and Sir Archibald Johnston of Warriston, ruling elders.

5. The cause of Charles among his English subjects was long doubtful; at length the rapid success of the parliamentary forces obliged him to grant all that the popular party had originally asked. Not satisfied, however, with this concession, they demanded that he should resign himself to their discretion. On learning this, the unfortunate monarch fled for protection

to the Scottish army, who were then besieging Newark. They, however, adopted no measures for his defence; but, having received four hundred thousand pounds, the amount of the arrears due to them by their allies, they coolly delivered him up in 1647, and afterwards marched home. After much opposition, the Duke of Hamilton raised a considerable force, and advanced into England, with the design of extricating the king from the hands of his enemies; but being attacked by Cromwell, he was, after a severe conflict, defeated, taken prisoner, and ultimately executed.

6. This unfortunate expedition hastened the ruin of his majesty; for the Independents, under the victorious Oliver, having obtained the power of the state, accused him as the author of all the miseries and bloodshed of the civil war, and insisted that he should be brought to trial. This demand was complied with; and accordingly a high court of justice was constituted, which met in Westminster Hall, consisting of one hundred and thirty-five persons, though scarcely more than seventy ever sat. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president; Coke was appointed solicitor for the people of England, and read the indictment, accusing Charles of being a traitor, a tyrant, a murderer, and a public and implacable enemy to the commonwealth. The charge being concluded, the president addressed the king, and told him that the court expected his answer. With great temper and dignity, he declined the authority of the court, and refused to submit himself to their jurisdiction. He represented that, "having been engaged in a treaty with his parliament, and having finished almost every article, he had expected ere this time to have been restored to his power, dignity, revenue, and liberty; that there was here no upper-house, an essential branch of the constitution; that he was their native hereditary king; that the whole authority of the state, though free and united, was not entitled to try him, who derived his dignity from the Supreme Majesty of Heaven; that he had a sacred and inviolable trust committed to him—the liberties of his people, and would not now betray them, by recognising a power founded on violence and usurpation; that those who arrogated a title to sit as his judges were born his subjects, and amenable to those laws which determined *that the king could do no wrong*; that, however, he was not reduced to the necessity of taking shelter under this general maxim, but was able, by the most satisfactory reasons, to justify to the whole world those measures in which he had been engaged; and even to his pretended judges, if called upon in another manner, he was desirous to prove the integrity of his

conduct." The president, in order to support the majesty of the commons, and the superiority of the court, inculcated, "that he must not decline the authority of his judges; that they were delegated by the people, the only source of all lawful power; and that kings themselves acted but in trust from that community which had invested this high court of justice with its jurisdiction." Three several times was Charles produced before the court, and as often declined their authority; but on the fourth, the judges, having examined a few witnesses, pronounced sentence of death upon him. In going along the passage from the hall, some soldiers, instigated by their officers, cried aloud for justice; whilst others, more brutal, spit in his face; to which indignity the unfortunate monarch submitted without resentment.

7. Between his sentence and execution three days elapsed, which he passed with great tranquillity, chiefly in reading and in devotion. His family, consisting of the Princess Elizabeth and the Duke of Gloucester (for the Duke of York had made his escape), were permitted to see him; to whom he gave many pious consolations and advices. On the 30th of January 1649, a scaffold was erected in the street before Whitehall. After ascending it, the king addressed himself to Colonel Tomlinson, and the few persons who were near him: he justified his own conduct in the late fatal wars; but, though innocent towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his sentence in the eyes of his Maker. He forgave all his enemies; and exhorted the whole nation to return to the ways of peace, and pay obedience to their lawful sovereign, his son and successor. When he was preparing himself for the block, Bishop Juxon said to him, "There is, sir, but one stage more, which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. Consider it will soon carry you a great way; it will carry you from earth to heaven; and there you shall find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten, a crown of glory." "I go," replied the king, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, and to a mansion where no disturbance can take place." At one blow his head was severed from his body by the executioner, who was in a vizor: another, in a like disguise, held it up to the spectators streaming with blood, and cried aloud, "This is the head of a traitor!" This extraordinary and melancholy scene filled the hearts of all present with grief, indignation, and astonishment.—Charles I. was a good rather than a great prince; possessed of many amiable qualities, but defective in the knowledge of his rightful power; strongly attached to episcopacy, but too long kept in ignorance by his ministers

and courtiers of the true temper of his subjects, which was the origin of all his misfortunes. He was executed in the forty-ninth year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the state of affairs in England at this period? What number of troops did the Scots send to Ireland? What agreement did the English parliament make with the Scots?

2. Who commanded the royal army in Scotland? Whom did the lords send against Montrose? What became of Baillie and Urrey? Where did Montrose obtain his sixth triumph? What was the consequence of it?

3. What change of affairs now took place?

4. What important step was taken for the reformation of the church? Who were the Scottish commissioners?

5. What success attended Charles in England? How did the Scots act when he fled to them for protection? What became of the Duke of Hamilton in his attempt to extricate Charles?

6. What was the consequence of this unfortunate expedition? Who demanded the trial of Charles? Who conducted this trial? What reply did Charles make to the charges brought against him? What sentence was passed upon the king?

7. How did he behave previous to his execution? What was the character of Charles I.?

SECTION V.

1. AFTER Hamilton's defeat, his brother, the Earl of Lanark, succeeded at once to his title and the command of the army, and was opposed by Argyll and the Leslys; till at length their differences were accommodated by Cromwell, who came to Edinburgh to strengthen the latter party, and to conciliate the favour of the covenanters. They, however, declared for the son of the late king, and despatched the Earls of Cassillis and Lothian to Breda, to invite him home, on condition of his becoming a presbyterian, and subscribing the covenant.

2. Upon the death of his father, the prince had appointed Montrose captain-general of Scotland; who, having raised about six hundred Germans, and obtained supplies of money, arms, and vessels, from some of the continental powers, sailed to Orkney, where he collected a few recruits. But a party of horse, commanded by Strahan, came suddenly upon him, after he had landed in Caithness, and cut his followers to pieces; the marquis himself, who escaped in disguise from the field of battle, being afterwards taken prisoner, was sent to Edinburgh. At the gate of that city he was met by the magistrates, and put into a cart, having in it a high bench, on which he was tied bareheaded, the hangman preceding him with his bonnet on; the other officers, who had been taken along with him, walking two and two in front.—He was afterwards conducted to the parliament, which was then sitting, when Loudon, the chancellor, reproached him with the breach of the covenant he had solemnly

subscribed; with rebellion against God, the king, and the realm; and with the many horrible murders, treasons, and impieties, for which he was now to be brought to condign punishment.—Montrose boldly denied the charges brought against him; vindicated his conduct in every respect; and expressed his willingness to die for the cause of his sovereign. Sentence being accordingly pronounced against him, it was carried into effect on the twenty-first of May 1650; on which occasion he conducted himself with the utmost fortitude. He died in his thirty-eighth year, leaving behind him the reputation of being the most celebrated military genius of that age.

3. On learning the fate of his lieutenant, Charles accepted the proposals of the Scottish ambassadors, and set sail from Holland with a number of followers. After a short passage, he landed at the mouth of the Spey, on the 4th of July 1650, and proceeded southwards, amidst the applause of the multitude.

4. As soon as the English parliament found that the king was disposed to accommodate matters with the covenanters, they prepared for war; and Cromwell forthwith invaded their country with an army of sixteen thousand men, accompanied by a large fleet. The Scots on their part raised a considerable force to oppose him; the command of which they gave to General Lesly, who, prudently intrenching his troops between Leith and Edinburgh, waited the approach of his wily antagonist. The latter tried every art to draw him from this secure position, but in vain. Disappointed in this attempt, and finding his provisions fail, he resolved to return home. Agreeably to this determination, he retreated to Dunbar; Lesly followed at his heels, and, taking possession of all the difficult passes, reduced him to such straits that he is said to have deemed it expedient to send off his foot and artillery by sea, and to break through at all hazards with his cavalry. The influence of the northern clergy, however, saved him from this loss and dishonour. They opposed the prudent measures of their general, and forced him, in spite of his remonstrances, to descend into the plain, that he might attack the English in their retreat. On perceiving this movement, Cromwell quickly drew up his forces in order of battle, and gave orders to begin the charge, telling his officers "that the Lord had delivered them into their hands." The Scots, although double in number, were soon defeated and put to flight, with the loss of three thousand killed and nine thousand taken prisoners; the victor pursuing them as far as Edinburgh, of which he took possession. The disaster at Dunbar diminished the power of the covenanters,

and Charles, who had hitherto remained almost a prisoner among them, seized at Perth the opportunity of making his escape, and fled to join Middleton, who was at the head of a few old royalists in the North. He was however overtaken and brought back; but after this *start*, as it was termed, he was treated with greater respect, crowned at Scone on the first of January 1651, and allowed to assume the command of the army in person.

5. Cromwell afterwards landed by means of his fleet, at Inverkeithing, in the face of a body of the enemy, whom he defeated; upon which Charles, reduced to despair, embraced a resolution worthy of a young prince contending for empire. Persuading his generals to promote his views, he instantly decamped at the head of fourteen thousand men, and advanced by rapid marches into England, where he expected his friends would flock to his standard. In this hope, however, he was disappointed, and on arriving at Worcester, found that his followers, extremely harassed by a hasty and fatiguing march, were not more numerous than when he left his encampment near Stirling. Oliver was surprised at this movement of the royal army, but by his vigilance and activity quickly defeated its object. He despatched letters to the parliament, exhorting them not to be dismayed at the approach of the Scots; he sent orders every where for assembling forces to oppose them; he ordered Lambert, with a body of cavalry, to hang upon their rear; while he himself, leaving Monk with seven thousand soldiers to complete the reduction of North Britain, followed the king with all expedition, and at length, with a force of thirty thousand men, overtook him at Worcester.

6. A most desperate engagement took place on the 3d of September 1651, in which the whole Scottish army were either killed or taken prisoners. The Duke of Hamilton was mortally wounded; and the king himself, after having given many proofs of personal valour, was obliged to flee. Separated from all his attendants, he found his way to a solitary house in Staffordshire, inhabited by one Penderell, a farmer, to whom he made himself known. This man, at the risk of his life, maintained unshaken fidelity to his sovereign; and having clothed him in a garb like his own, he and his four brothers led him to a neighbouring wood, put a hatchet into his hands, and pretended to employ themselves in cutting fagots. Some nights he lay upon straw, and fed on such homely fare as the household afforded; and for better concealment he mounted an oak, where he sheltered himself twenty-four hours. In this situation he saw several soldiers pass, who were all intent in search of him, and heard them

express their earnest wishes to get him into their hands. He did not, however, continue long there; but having joined Lord Wilmot, who was skulking in the neighbourhood, they agreed to put themselves into the hands of Colonel Lane, who was only a few miles off. Accordingly the king was placed on horseback, and arrived at Bentley, where the colonel formed a plan for his journey to Bristol, by obtaining a pass for his own sister, with a servant, to travel to that city; and on this occasion his majesty rode before the lady, and personated her attendant.—On her arrival Miss Lane procured a private room for him, on pretence that he was unwell. Here Charles was seen by the butler, who recognised him; but the honest fellow kept the secret. As no vessel was to sail from Bristol either to France or Spain for a month, he was obliged to go elsewhere for a passage, and accordingly committed himself to the care of Colonel Windham, an affectionate royalist, in whose house he remained several days. All his friends were in anxious suspense for his safety; but as the report of his death happily relaxed the vigilant search of his enemies, new endeavours were made to procure a ship for his escape, though he had still to encounter several disappointments. Once he left Windham's house, but was obliged to return. He passed through many other adventures; assumed different disguises; in every step was exposed to imminent perils; and received daily proofs of uncorrupted fidelity and attachment. The sagacity of a smith, who remarked that his horse's shoes had been made in the north, not in the west, as he pretended, once exposed him to detection, and he narrowly escaped. At Shoreham, in Sussex, a sloop was secured, in which he at last embarked. He had been known to so many that, if he had not set sail at that critical moment, it had been impossible for him to remain longer concealed from his enemies. After forty-one days spent in various retreats, he arrived safely at Fecamp, in Normandy. Not less than forty men and women had, at different times, been privy to his concealment and escape.

EXERCISES.

1. Who assumed the command of the Scottish army at this period? What measures did the covenanters adopt? Who were despatched to invite Charles II. home from Holland?

2. What steps did Charles II. take after his father's death? What exertions did Montrose make? Who took him prisoner? What punishment did he endure?

3. When did Charles arrive in Scotland? What took place after his arrival?

4. Who invaded Scotland at this period? How did the Scots prepare for his reception? What battle ensued in consequence of Cromwell's invasion? What were the particulars of it? What loss did the Scots sustain at Dunbar? What effect had this disaster on the fortunes of Charles?

5. How did Cromwell improve his victory? What resolution did Charles embrace?

6. When was the battle of Worcester fought? What were the particulars of it? What became of Charles? How did he at last make his escape?

SECTION VI.

1. AFTER the battle of Worcester, the parliamentary forces under Monk took Stirling Castle; defeated the Earls of Leven and Crawford near Perth; and subsequently obliged Governor Lumsden to surrender Dundee, the inhabitants of which he put to the sword by command of Cromwell. The last effort in the royal cause was made by the Earl of Glencairn, Lord Balcarras, and General Middleton, who had under them a small body of Highlanders; but, being attacked by Morgan, they were also worsted. Soon afterwards, St Andrews, Inverness, Aberdeen, and every other principal town in the kingdom, submitted to the armies of the commonwealth.

2. Oliver Cromwell now possessed the entire government of Scotland; he built new fortresses at Ayr, Leith, and Inverness; garrisoned every military post with English soldiers; and kept the Scots in greater subjection than they had ever yet experienced. Notwithstanding this state of submission to a usurper, they felt themselves comparatively flourishing and happy; as the conquerors, by conducting themselves with great prudence, exercising the useful arts, and paying punctually for every necessary, both enriched and civilized the natives. After these transactions, the parliament sent Sir Henry Vane, Lord St John, and certain other persons of great influence, to Edinburgh, to settle the public affairs. These commissioners proposed a union with the commonwealth of England; but the northern clergy solemnly protested against such a measure. Nevertheless, judges of both nations were joined in the courts of judicature, who strictly administered the laws; so that the impartiality and moderation of the new government served much to reconcile the minds of the people, and to allay their prejudices against its head.

3. Cromwell soon afterwards conceived the idea of uniting the three kingdoms; and accordingly, by the advice of his military council alone, he sent summonses to one hundred and twenty-eight persons in England, to five in Scotland, and six in Ireland, who were to compose a parliament of lords and commons, and meet at Westminster as representatives of the several nations. Their legislative power was to continue fifteen months, after which they were to appoint their successors. The Earl of Argyll, Johnston, procurator of the church (created Lord Warriston), and Lockhart, a brave officer, who

married Oliver's niece, were among the Scottish lords who repaired to this convention, which met on the fourth of July 1653, and continued its sittings till the twelfth of December 1656; at which period, finding the general dissatisfied with their conduct, they restored their authority into his hands. Oliver was afterwards chosen Protector for life by the army; and a council of state, consisting of fifteen persons, was named to assist him in administering the government.

4. The new ruler was equally fortunate in England and Ireland; victory followed his standard wherever it appeared; and, having now procured domestic tranquillity, he employed his power abroad in humbling all who opposed him. After an administration remarkable for success and vigour, he died in 1658, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, leaving his son Richard to succeed him as the head of the commonwealth. Cromwell was a gentleman of honourable birth, but of small fortune; and being unsuccessful as a farmer and brewer, he had taken his passage on board a ship for America, where he meant to establish himself as a planter; an enterprise which he was compelled to relinquish by an order of council. He rose to eminence by his military talents, his great courage, his antimonarchical zeal, his pretensions to piety, and his peculiar dexterity in discovering the characters and practising on the weaknesses of mankind.

5. Richard did not long enjoy his dignity; for he had scarcely been invested with it before a cabal of the principal military officers, headed by Lambert, entered into an intrigue to depose him. When some of his friends offered to put an end to it by the death of that commander, he, being of a gentle and generous disposition, nobly declared, that he would never purchase power by such means. Soon after, on the twenty-second of April 1659, he signed his demission in form; and, after travelling abroad some years, returned to his native country, where he enjoyed a quiet and peaceful life to an extreme old age; his social virtues securing to him contentment and tranquillity. The council of officers were now possessed of supreme authority, and deliberated on what form of government they should adopt. After some time, they agreed to revive the long parliament, which had been expelled by Cromwell; and they accordingly met and proceeded to business. Shortly after, a conspiracy of the royalists was discovered; and Lambert, being sent against them by the parliament, defeated their troops, but as he himself rebelled against his masters the whole nation was thrown into a state of distraction and alarm.

6. General Monk, as soon as he saw the wheels of govern-

ment standing still, without revealing his designs to any one, marched his army to London; where the parliament commanded him to disarm the citizens and break down the gates. The general immediately complied with this order; but no sooner had he leisure to reflect on what he had done, than he wrote a letter to the government, complaining of the odious service in which he had been employed, and declaring that he would no longer be a minister of violence and oppression. He then addressed himself to the common council, to whom he made many apologies for the indignity which he had been obliged to put upon them; and desired a strict union between the city and the army, for promoting the settlement of the commonwealth. After this, he restored the loyal members to their seats in parliament, and prevailed upon them to submit to a dissolution. On the meeting of the new representatives, a letter was received from Charles, accompanied with a declaration, offering a general amnesty to all persons whatsoever; promising liberty of conscience, and a concurrence in any act of the legislature for securing that indulgence; submitting to the arbitration of parliament the inquiry into all grants, purchases, and alienations; and guaranteeing to the soldiers the discharge of all their arrears, and a continuance of their present pay. After these conditions and assurances were read in the house, orders were given on the eighth of May 1660 to proclaim him King of England, and to despatch the fleet under Admiral Montague to convey him from Holland. On its arrival there, the Duke of York having taken the command, Charles instantly embarked, and, after an agreeable passage, landed at Dover, where he was received by Monk, whom he cordially embraced for his important services.

7. The young monarch arrived in London on the twenty-ninth of May (being his birth-day), where he was received with the loudest acclamations. His restoration was also proclaimed in Scotland; whither he sent down the Earl of Glencairn, to preside in a committee of estates till the parliament should be called. The Earl of Lauderdale was appointed secretary for that country; and the Earl of Middleton opened the parliament with a speech in his sovereign's name, on the first of January 1661. This body manifested a very compliant spirit, by granting a revenue of forty thousand pounds to Charles for life, and instantly abolishing every act which had passed during a long series of years, with the view of restricting the royal prerogative. The solemn league and covenant was indirectly pronounced to have been treasonable; and certain statutes which were enacted prepared the way for the

abolition of presbytery, and the restoration of the episcopal form. In this extremity, the presbyterians sent James Sharpe, one of their ministers, to advocate their interests at court; but he basely betrayed their cause, and eagerly embraced the dignity of archbishop of St Andrews.

8. His majesty afterwards proceeded, by means of this parliament, to inflict severities on the covenanters; and accordingly the Marquis of Argyll and the reverend James Guthrie were tried, condemned, and executed. In their last moments, they conducted themselves with Christian fortitude and resignation. Johnston of Warriston, though a voluntary exile, was afterwards condemned, and several others were imprisoned or banished. The king now enjoined his privy-councillors in Scotland to establish episcopacy; in pursuance of which resolution Sharpe, Fairfowl, Hamilton, and Leighton, in addition to Sydserff who still survived, were consecrated in England to the office of bishop; and the ministers were forbidden to assemble in their ecclesiastical courts. The parliament afterwards invited the prelates to take their seats in it. To support the new establishment, the oath of supremacy and allegiance was imposed upon the presbyterians, which most of them refused to take; in consequence of which they were threatened, fined, imprisoned, or banished. Archbishop Fairfowl of Glasgow even solicited the council to pass an act in 1662, ordering the rejection of all the recusant ministers, and commanding the churches to be shut up till episcopal incumbents could be procured. This measure was accordingly adopted, and thereby three hundred and fifty parishes (above a third of the whole number) were at once declared vacant. Middleton and the bishops were alarmed by this firmness on the part of the clergy, who nobly abandoned their churches, houses, incomes, and little possessions, for conscience' sake; and the people were filled with just indignation against the cruelty of government.

EXERCISES.

1. How did the English forces in Scotland act? Who made the last effort in the royal cause?

2. Who now possessed the entire government of Scotland? How did the Scots endure his usurpation? What commissioners were sent to settle the Scottish affairs?

3. What measures did Cromwell take to unite the three kingdoms? What were the consequences of a meeting of parliament?

4. How did Cromwell administer the government of England? When did he die? What was his character?

5. Who succeeded him? Did Richard long enjoy his dignity? What form of government did the council of officers adopt?

6. How did General Monk act? What took place at the meeting of the new parliament? When was Charles proclaimed?

7. When did Charles arrive in London? Who presided in the Scottish

parliament? What acts were passed in it? How did James Sharpe conduct himself?

8. What orders did the king give his parliament and privy-council? What impositions were laid on the presbyterians? What were the consequences?

SECTION VII.

1. In consequence of a quarrel with the Earl of Lauderdale, Middleton was dismissed from all his employments by the king, who intrusted the administration of affairs to the former, at whose request Lord Rothes, now appointed royal commissioner, accompanied him to Edinburgh in 1663, to attend the meeting of parliament. This body suspended the exaction of fines from non-conformists; discharged Lord Lorne from his imprisonment; continued the act for excluding the recusant clergy from the pulpits; and consented to levy and maintain a permanent military force for the service of his majesty. After these proceedings, Lauderdale sacrificed the interests of the presbyterian cause which he had been expected to protect, by continuing the exile and confinement of the ministers, punishing those who adhered to the covenant, and by violently establishing episcopal clergymen, contrary to the remonstrances of the parishioners.—After the admission of Sharpe, and of Burnet the archbishop of Glasgow, into the privy-council, a high commission court for ecclesiastical affairs was erected. Fines, prosecutions, and violent settlements, the dispersion by the military of field conventicles, and of secret religious meetings in houses, harassed the people throughout one-half of the kingdom. This unhappy state of things, however, did not long continue; as Lauderdale persuaded the king that a more lenient system was necessary, and as Sharpe was soon after obliged to retire from the administration of affairs.

2. This change of measures unfortunately came too late; for the presbyterians, irritated by the treatment they had received, took up arms, and, in 1666, routed a party of soldiers at Dalry, surprised Sir James Turner at Ayr, and took him prisoner. After these victories, their adherents increasing to about two thousand, they continued their march towards Edinburgh, professing meanwhile all submission to the king, and desiring only the re-establishment of presbytery and of their former ministers. In the capital they expected to be joined by a large body of the citizens, but were disappointed; upon which their numbers diminished to eight hundred men, who soon began to feel the want of provisions. In this condition they began their retreat homewards, but were attacked by General Dalziel near Pentland-hills, and routed with con-

siderable loss, forty being killed, and one hundred and thirty taken prisoners. After this defeat, the privy-council directed their rage against the more rigid presbyterians, ten of whom were hanged on one gibbet at Edinburgh, and thirty-five before their own doors; others were plundered of their property, imprisoned, or banished. But the fate of Hew Mackail, an eloquent and zealous preacher, excited the deepest and most lasting interest. He was first put to the torture in the presence of the councillors; and, before he recovered from its effects, was tried and condemned. At the place of execution, his youthful appearance, and modest yet exulting intrepidity, melted the spectators into tears. He expired in a transport of joy, exclaiming, "Farewell, sun, moon, and stars; farewell, world and time; farewell, weak and frail body! Welcome, eternity; welcome, angels and saints; welcome, Saviour of the world; and welcome, God, the Judge of all!"

3. To put an end to these diabolical proceedings, Charles wrote a letter to the privy-council, commanding them to desist from persecution. This letter was brought by Burnet, archbishop of Glasgow, but for some time wickedly kept up by him and his colleague. These contentions and severities blasted the national prosperity; all mercantile and agricultural industry was interrupted; idleness and disorder universally prevailed; and religion itself seemed on the eve of being extinguished. In this dreadful state of things, a loud cry of indignation was justly raised against the primate and his associates; upon which Lauderdale persuaded the king to remove him altogether from the administration, and to employ in his room the gentle and moderate Leighton.

4. After the dismissal of Sharpe and Rothes, the Earl of Tweeddale, Sir Robert Murray, and the Bishop of Dunblane, just named, assisted in conducting the government. Measures of the most conciliating kind were adopted; argument and persuasion were alone employed; and the covenanters were only required to subscribe an engagement disclaiming all intentions of rebellion. Those officers, also, who had permitted their soldiers to commit the greatest enormities, were withdrawn from their command. Men of worth and talents were likewise employed in the episcopal church; while those whose conduct disgraced it were obliged to retire. Notwithstanding these concessions, the presbyterians would not advance one step towards reconciliation with episcopacy; and considered them only as proofs of the conscious guilt and oppression of their enemies. Leighton therefore yielded yet farther, by granting them, in 1669, an indulgence under easy conditions, and restoring a number of their ministers to vacant

parishes ; so that, under his mild auspices, conventicles became frequent, and were numerously attended.

5. In order farther to establish the power of the sovereign, the chancellor formed a militia, consisting of sixteen thousand foot and two thousand cavalry ; and persuaded the parliament to pass two acts, conferring the whole power in church and state upon the king, with the advice of his privy-council. In consequence of this measure, Burnet was removed from the archbishopric of Glasgow, and the see was intrusted, *in commendam*, to the learned and pious Bishop of Dunblane. The civil and religious principles of Lauderdale, now created a duke, no longer admitted of any disguise ; and the presbyterians discovered him to be a fit tool of tyranny, without piety and without virtue. Although indulgence was still held out to such of them as would accept of it on certain terms, yet those who adhered to the covenant, entertained recusant ministers, and met in conventicles, were again unsparingly persecuted by the privy-council. Informers, of the basest character, were shamefully rewarded with a part of the fines ; and, being thus encouraged, they traversed the country, and searched out the most inoffensive individuals for prosecution. He next endeavoured to render the Court of Session independent of the parliament ; but the advocates, to their immortal honour, thwarted his views, though they thereby exposed themselves to banishment, from which, however, the interruption and derangement of business obliged government to recall them. Such hostility to the liberties of his country rendered Lauderdale daily more odious, and enraged the Duke of Hamilton, the Earl of Tweeddale, and other nobles, against him to such a degree, that they endeavoured to get him removed. But they soon discovered that their influence was unequal to the accomplishment of this patriotic purpose, for he maintained a complete ascendancy over Charles, and continued to rule with the most vindictive fury.

6. An event now occurred which proved that he was as destitute of truth and honour as of lenity and justice. An individual named Mitchell had formed a resolution to assassinate Archbishop Sharpe, who had rendered himself odious by his apostasy and cruelty. He accordingly fired a pistol at him as he was sitting in his coach ; but the Bishop of Orkney, who was stepping into it at the moment, happened to stretch out his arm, which intercepted the ball, and was much shattered by it. This took place in the principal street of Edinburgh ; but so universally was the archbishop hated, that Mitchell was allowed to walk off without molestation ; and having turned round a corner, and thrown off a wig which

disguised him, immediately appeared in the crowd, and remained altogether unsuspected. Some years after, Sharpe remarking a person who seemed to gaze at him very eagerly, ordered him to be seized and examined. Two loaded pistols were found upon him, from which it was suspected that he was the author of the former attempt, and the primate promised, if he would confess his guilt, that he should be dismissed without any punishment. Mitchell was weak enough to comply; and was immediately arraigned by him before the privy-council. This judicature, having no proof against him, but hoping to involve the whole body of the covenanters in the odious crime, solemnly renewed the promise of pardon, if he would make a full discovery; and it was a great disappointment to them, when they found by his confession that only one person, who was then dead, had been acquainted with his purpose. He was next carried before a more regular court, and required to renew his confession; whence, upon his refusal, he was sent back to prison. He was again examined before the council under pretence of having been concerned in the insurrection at Pentland, and, when no evidence appeared against him, he was urged to accuse himself. After enduring the torture, he was sent to the Bass, a high rock in the Firth of Forth, at that time converted into a state prison, and full of the persecuted covenanters. After remaining there loaded with irons till the year 1677, he was brought before the council, and put upon his trial for attempting to assassinate an archbishop. In vain he urged their solemn promise of pardon; as Lauderdale, Lord Hatton his brother, the Earl of Rothes, and the archbishop, denied upon oath that any such promise had ever been given. The prisoner then demanded that the council-books should be produced; but, being aware that an inspection of these would prove their perjury, they refused this request, and condemned him to be executed at Edinburgh in January 1678. This base combination of cruelty and treachery showed the character of those ministers to whom the king at that time intrusted the government of Scotland.

EXERCISES.

1. On what account was Middleton dismissed? Who was appointed king's commissioner? What were the general proceedings of parliament? How did Lauderdale now act? What took place after the admission of Sharpe and Burnet into the privy-council?
2. What defensive measures did the presbyterians employ? What success had Dalziel near Pentland-hills? How were the presbyterians now treated? What remarkable instance of religious fortitude was exhibited by one of them?
3. How did Charles endeavour to put an end to the persecution of the presbyterians? What was the effect of these persecutions?

4. Who succeeded Sharpe in the administration of ecclesiastical affairs? What measures did his successors adopt? What effect did their concessions produce on the presbyterians?

5. What plan did Lauderdale take to secure the royal authority? What means did the privy-council employ to extirpate the presbyterians? How did Lauderdale attempt to increase the power of the Court of Session? In what light was his character now regarded? Who endeavoured to get Lauderdale removed?

6. What event occurred which rendered Lauderdale completely odious? What became of Mitchell?

SECTION VIII.

1. LAUDERDALE, having resolved to suppress all conventicles, now endeavoured to compel the landholders in the western counties to give bonds engaging themselves, under heavy penalties, to prevent the assembling of field-preachers on their estates. Upon their refusal to grant such security, six thousand Highland soldiers were, in 1678, dispersed at free quarters over those districts, at that time the most populous and industrious in Scotland. Thus a numerous military force, unaccustomed to discipline, averse to the restraints of law, and trained up in rapine and violence, were let loose upon the defenceless inhabitants, whom they were taught to regard as enemies to their prince and to their religion. Nothing escaped their rapacious hands; and the people, by menaces, by violence, and sometimes by torture, were obliged to discover their concealed wealth. Neither age, nor sex, nor innocence, afforded protection from these monsters; and even the gentlemen were required to deliver up their horses and arms. These orders they refused to obey; upon which the duke, in a phrensy, made bare his arms to the elbow, and swore by Jehovah, that they should all be forced to enter into the proposed bonds. After this declaration, he renewed the most severe measures against the presbyterians. A number of the nobles, disgusted with such tyranny and cruelty, went to London and laid their complaints before the king. Dreading the consequence of their representations, his grace summoned a convention of the estates, who, at his instigation, granted an assessment for three years, to support the military body already employed, and, in a letter to their sovereign, bestowed the highest praises on his administration. Charles, however, issued orders for discontinuing the bonds, and other violent proceedings; but, while he retracted these oppressive measures, he was prevailed on to avow and praise them in a letter to the privy-council. Nay, it is reported, that, after a full hearing of Scottish affairs, he said, "I perceive that Lauderdale has been guilty of many bad things against the people of

Scotland; but I cannot find that he has acted in any thing contrary to my interest." Such a sentiment was altogether unworthy of a sovereign.

2. About this time Archbishop Sharpe became the victim of personal resentment in the following manner: On the 3d of May 1679, Balfour of Burley, Hackston of Rathillet, and several other rigid presbyterians, lay in wait for one of his officers, whose name was Carmichael, on the road near St Andrews, with the intention of severely chastising him. While looking out for their prey, they were surprised at seeing the primate's carriage approach with a very few attendants; upon which they immediately attacked him, dragged him to the earth, tore him from the arms of his daughter, who interposed with cries and tears, and piercing him with redoubled wounds, left him dead on the spot. This atrocious deed served the government as a pretext for a more violent persecution of the covenanters, on whom they threw all the guilt. The people, roused to fury by the cruelties exercised against them, took up arms, and defeated Graham of Claverhouse at Drumclog, with the loss of thirty of his men. After this victory thousands joined their standard, and they immediately marched in a body to Hamilton. On hearing of this movement the royal troops fled from Glasgow, of which the others took possession and forthwith drove away the established clergy. Orders were instantly given to embody the militia, of whom the king's natural son, the Duke of Monmouth, assumed the command, and directly marched to meet the rebels.

3. On the 22d of June 1679, an engagement between the parties took place at Bothwell-bridge, which the presbyterians bravely defended for a considerable time; but at length their ammunition failing, they were forced to retreat. The duke's battalions immediately passed the river, and surrounded the insurgent infantry, whom they compelled to lay down their arms, after the loss of four hundred killed and twelve hundred taken prisoners. Notwithstanding Monmouth's desire to prevent the effusion of blood, many were slaughtered without mercy; fines, imprisonment, and banishment cruelly harassed all ranks; and, to complete the horrid scene, the soldiers were again let loose upon the western counties. The prisoners were afterwards conducted to Edinburgh, where they were confined some months in the jails and in the Greyfriars churchyard. A pardon was offered to them, but on conditions to which they could not submit. In consequence of this refusal, three hundred were sent to Barbadoes, who perished on the voyage; Kid and King, two of their ministers, were hanged, and five were ordered for execution on Magus Moor (the place where

Sharpe had been murdered); but Monmouth's return to London procured at once a mitigation of their punishment, and also a new indulgence in the exercise of their religion. Shortly after, Cameron and Cargill, two celebrated preachers, publicly excommunicated the king for his tyranny and breach of the covenant, and renounced allegiance to him. The former of these divines was afterwards killed in an action at Airdsmoss in 1680; and the latter was taken and executed, together with many of his followers.

4. James duke of York, in 1681, succeeded Lauderdale in the management of Scottish affairs. Soon after coming into office, he prevailed with the parliament to enact a test, in which the king's supremacy was maintained, the covenant renounced, the doctrine of passive obedience assented to, and all obligations disclaimed of endeavouring any alteration in civil or religious establishments.—This test all persons holding office, civil, military, or ecclesiastical, were bound to take. But the Earl of Argyll, considering the oath contradictory to itself in several of its clauses, refused to comply, unless he were allowed to explain the sense in which he understood it; and in consequence of this reservation he was accused of treason, tried and condemned by a jury of fifteen noblemen to suffer death. This afforded a melancholy proof, that the genuine passion for liberty was at that time nearly extinguished among the Scottish nobility, though the sentence excited great indignation and horror among the people. His lordship, however, escaped from Edinburgh Castle, and fled to London, where he concealed himself till he found a ship bound for Holland, in which he embarked; but his estate was immediately confiscated, and his arms reversed and torn in pieces. In 1682, Lauderdale died, execrated by his enemies and unlamented by those who had once been his friends.

5. York's administration inflamed the minds of the Scots with the deepest hatred both against his person and authority. The period of his government, however, was not of long duration; and on his voyage to London the vessel in which he sailed struck upon a sand-bank and was lost. He himself escaped in the barge, and, whilst Hyde, his brother-in-law, and many other persons of rank and quality, were drowned, it was observed that he was very careful to save his dogs and priests! He was succeeded by Gordon, earl of Aberdeen, who was made chancellor, and the Duke of Queensberry, who was appointed treasurer,—men whose abilities the nation despised, and whose moral character it had reason to detest. During their ascendancy above two hundred persons were outlawed on pretence of conversing or holding

intercourse with rebels; and the covenanters were ensnared by having embarrassing questions put to them; such as,—“Will you renounce the covenant? Do you esteem the rising at Bothwell to be rebellion? Was the killing of the Archbishop of St Andrews murder?” And when they, in a state of alarm, refused to answer, capital punishments were inflicted on them. Even women were brought to the gibbet for this pretended crime. Fines were more rigorously exacted; a new inquisition was established; and hardly one, however innocent, could escape its conviction and its penalties.

6. The following remarkable instance of cruelty and injustice took place at this time:—Three women were seized for refusing to take the abjuration-oath, and condemned to be drowned. One of them was an elderly person, the second eighteen years of age, the third only thirteen. Being ashamed to take the life of the youngest, they tied the others to stakes at low water, that their death might be lingering and dreadful. The oldest woman was placed farthest in, and, by the rising of the water was first suffocated. The younger, partly terrified with the view of her companion's fate, partly subdued by the entreaties of her friends, was prevailed on to say “God save the king!” Immediately the spectators called out that she had submitted, and she was loosened from the stake. Major Winram, the officer who guarded the execution, again required her to sign the abjuration-oath; and, upon her refusal, ordered her instantly to be plunged into the water, by which she was soon deprived of life.—The progress of time neither overcame the resolution of the sufferers, nor softened in the least the rage of their persecutors. All hereditary jurisdictions were forfeited by those who refused to subscribe the test-act; and many noble families were also reduced to poverty and ruin.—In consequence of these rigorous measures the people were tempted to carry on intrigues with the opponents of the court in London, and with the friends of the Prince of Orange in Holland. The suspicion excited by this intercourse called forth anew the rage of the bigoted government. The poor peasantry, who were attached to the covenant, suffered unutterable hardships, by banishment, imprisonment, torture, exposure to perish by famine, and various other miseries, sufficient to make humanity shrink from the recollection of them. Graham of Claverhouse was the chief agent employed in the south-western counties,—a rigid officer, who abstained from no cruelty which he thought calculated either to punish or prevent disaffection; while the established clergy, instead of being the benefactors of their parishioners, acted, in two many instances, in full accordance with the

intolerant spirit of the civil authorities. About this time the Earl of Perth having, by means of his religious apostasy, attained power in the Scottish administration, carried the cruelty of a persecuting spirit to a greater height than ever. Under suspicion of treasonable practices which were not proved, Baillie of Jerviswood was executed, and Carstairs with several others, respectable for their rank and virtues, underwent extreme severity of torture.

7. In the midst of these cruel proceedings, Charles expired on the 6th of February 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age; having reigned thirty-six years and eight days, reckoning from the time of his father's death, or twenty-four years eight months and nine days from his own restoration. To a lively wit and quick comprehension, this monarch united a clear understanding; he possessed the easiest manners, the most unaffected politeness, and engaging good-humour; but, unfortunately, the adversities of his youth had not made the happiest impression on his opening mind. The young Duke of Buckingham, who was his favourite companion, debauched his principles, and enticed him to indulge, without restraint, in criminal pleasures. Immersed in these, he was callous to the miseries of his subjects in Scotland, and left them in the power of rapacious, cruel, and unprincipled ministers; while he himself despised religion, virtue, and every thing sacred.

EXERCISES.

1. What means did Lauderdale employ to suppress conventicles? What endeavours did the nobles make to put an end to Lauderdale's tyranny? How did the nobles succeed in their representation to Charles?

2. What became of Archbishop Sharpe? What was the consequence of his assassination? What victory did the covenanters gain? What was the consequence of it?

3. When was the battle of Bothwell-bridge fought? What was the loss of the presbyterians? What became of those who refused the king's pardon? In what manner did Cameron and Cargill act?

4. Who succeeded Lauderdale? What became of Argyll? When did Lauderdale die?

5. What became of the Duke of York? By whom was he succeeded in the administration of Scotland? What ensnaring questions were put to the covenanters? What was the consequence?

6. What remarkable instance of cruelty took place at this time? What persecutions did the presbyterians endure? Who was the principal agent in conducting them?

7. When did Charles II. die? What was his character?

SECTION IX.

1. CHARLES II. was succeeded by his brother the Duke of York, now James VII.; and soon after the accession, a parliament met at Edinburgh, where Queensberry presided as commissioner. This assembly appeared willing to make an entire

surrender of their liberties, for they voted that the king was vested with a solid and absolute authority, of which none could participate, but in dependence on him, and by commission from him; they engaged that every individual in the nation, between sixteen and sixty, should be in readiness for his majesty's service, where and as oft as he should require them; and they annexed the whole excise, both of native manufactures and foreign commodities, to the crown for ever. In vain did Argyll attempt to rouse his countrymen to vindicate their violated laws and privileges. He arrived from Holland in the year 1685, and, with some trouble and expense, collected a body of two thousand five hundred men. The privy-council being apprized of his intentions, called out twenty-two thousand militia to join the regular forces, so that he was soon surrounded with insuperable difficulties. His arms and ammunition were seized, and his provisions cut off; the Marquis of Athol pressed him on one side, and Lord Charles Murray on another; the Duke of Gordon hung upon his rear, whilst the Earl of Dumbarton met him in front. His followers daily deserted him, but, determined to persevere, he made a descent into the lowlands; no one, however, showed courage or inclination to join him, so that his little army, after marching about from place to place, was at last dispersed. He himself was taken prisoner in disguise near Renfrew, put in irons, and carried to the cross of Edinburgh, where he suffered death with a fortitude and serenity which confounded his enemies.

2. In the Western Highlands, which had supported Argyll, Lord Breadalbane and the Marquis of Athol exerted themselves as the ministers of vengeance, and exercised great severity upon the inhabitants. The houses of the peasantry upon his estate were burnt; the woods, the mills, and the gardens destroyed; the fishing-boats and nets of the starving inhabitants torn in pieces; and the jails filled with prisoners, who, if not hurried to instant execution, were left to drag out life in circumstances of want and misery. In the meantime, the king was desirous to restore the British dominions to the empire of Rome. The Earls of Perth and Melfort, adopting the same views, gained his favour by their apostasy; the former of whom, to prove his sincerity, persuaded his dying wife to embrace popery, and completed his triumph by inducing Sibbald, a celebrated physician and naturalist, to embrace the same creed. Queensberry, less obsequious, was dismissed. After this the penal laws against the papists were superseded by the privy-council; and Lord Perth opened a chapel for the private celebration of mass at Holyrood House.

3. In this critical juncture, the presbyterians conducted themselves with the utmost boldness; thereby exposing their cause to the vengeance of government, who executed an amiable young man named Renwick, one of their preachers, with some others. In consequence of these enormities, a strong opposition, headed by the Duke of Queensberry, was formed against the ministry. The intercourse with the Prince of Orange was renewed; and the nation discovered a spirit indignantly abhorrent of popery, against which presbyterians and episcopalians joined with one voice. The same sentiments also prevailed in England. Not only the nation, but even the army, detested the religion of their king; and a close correspondence was carried on with his son-in-law by all the principal nobility. Yet James, blind to his true interest, pursued the most violent measures, and rushed headlong on his own destruction.

4. At last the auspicious period arrived when both nations were to be delivered. On the 5th of November 1688, William landed an army of about fourteen thousand men at Torbay; to which place the nobles, the gentry, and the people, hastened from all quarters to join his standard. On his arrival he immediately subscribed a bond of agreement with the great barons; and after issuing a declaration, exhibiting the causes and designs of his coming, he marched forward to London. On learning the approach of the prince, James, stunned by the proofs of a general disaffection, agitated by disdain at the ingratitude of his favourites, as well as by indignation at the disloyalty of his subjects, and impelled, at the same time, by his own fears and those of his friends, precipitately embraced the resolution of escaping to France. Sending off the queen and his infant son, he himself disappeared in the night, attended only by Sir Edward Hales; but being seized by the populace at Feversham, as some felon escaping in disguise, he was much abused by them before his person was recognised. He was brought back to London, whence, after remaining there a few days, despised and neglected, he retired to Rochester; and privately embarking in a frigate which waited for him, landed in the French territory, where he was received by Louis with the highest generosity, sympathy, and regard.

5. After the flight of his father-in-law, William took possession of the royal palace; and the lords and commons, assembling, passed a bill, by which they settled the crown upon the Prince and Princess of Orange. In Scotland, the people in general flew to arms; the civil authority of the old government entirely ceased; the youths attending the

University of Glasgow publicly burnt the effigies of the pope and of the two archbishops. The students, apprentices, and more zealous citizens of Edinburgh, aided at last by the presence of the magistrates and town-guard, drove away a company of soldiers, who protected the palace of Holyrood House, rifled the chapel, and burnt the images and books. The Earl of Perth attempting to make his escape out of the kingdom, was discovered and cast into prison. In the southern and western parts of the country, the inhabitants seized the persons of the episcopal clergy, carried them about in mock procession through their parishes, tore their gowns, and drove them from their homes and churches. A few persons still adhered to James, among whom was the Duke of Gordon, a papist, who commanded Edinburgh Castle, the bishops of the episcopal church, and Graham of Claverhouse.

6. In the affairs of Scotland, the Prince of Orange conducted himself with the greatest prudence and moderation. Understanding there were many northern peers in London, he summoned them together, laid before them his intentions, and asked their advice in the existing emergency. This meeting, consisting of thirty noblemen and about eighty gentlemen, chose the Duke of Hamilton president; and, after some deliberation, made an offer of the administration to the prince. This offer he willingly accepted, and summoned a convention-parliament to meet at Edinburgh on the 4th of March 1689. When this assembly met, the members declared by a bold and decisive voice, that James had forfeited all title to the crown; made a tender of the royal dignity to William and Mary, as the next heirs; and appointed Sir James Montgomery and Sir John Dalrymple to repair to London, and invest their majesties with the government. They also restored the forfeited honours and estates of Argyll, and many others, who had suffered during the late persecutions. Presbytery was re-established with all its claims, episcopacy tolerated for a time, and popery unconditionally proscribed. The parliamentary rights of the Scottish nation were also recognised and confirmed, the despotism of the privy-council restrained, and the revolution fully completed.

7. After witnessing these proceedings, which all their power could not prevent, the Earl of Balcarres, and Graham (now Viscount Dundee), retired from the parliament in disgust. The former was afterwards taken prisoner; but Dundee escaped to the Highlands, where he mustered an army of several thousand men, and displayed the banner of King James. Upon this declaration, a body of King William's

troops, commanded by General Mackay, was sent to oppose him, and, on the 27th of July 1689, encountered him at the pass of Killcrankie, in Athol. There a furious engagement took place, in which the Highlanders, having received and returned the fire of the English, fell upon them sword in hand with such impetuosity, that the infantry were routed in a short time, and the dragoons fled at the first charge. Dundee's horse, which did not exceed one hundred, broke through Mackay's own regiment, and the Earl of Dumbarton, at the head of a few volunteers, made himself master of the artillery. At this critical moment, the viscount himself was mortally wounded, and only lived to write a concise account of the victory to his royal master.—With the death of this celebrated commander terminated the successes of the Jacobites. The defeated general speedily took the field again, and surprised a detachment at Perth; the remainder, being repulsed in an attack upon a regiment of Cameronians at Dunkeld, dispersed and returned home. Several forts were built to overawe the clans; and the Duke of Gordon, after surrendering the castle of Edinburgh to Sir John Lanier, threw himself upon the royal mercy. In Ireland, however, the number of James's adherents was still great; but William, in July 1690, defeated him in the decisive battle of the Boyne, and forced him again to seek refuge in France.

8. The Duke of Hamilton, Earl Melville, and some others, conducted the Scottish administration at this period. That the disorders in the Highlands might be redressed, the clans which had been in rebellion were required, by proclamation, to lay down their arms by a certain day, and to take, in presence of the sheriffs, the oath of allegiance to the new king. Indemnity for the past was offered on this condition alone; and the Earl of Breadalbane was intrusted with fifteen thousand pounds to be distributed among the chieftains, that they might be won over to their duty. This, however, being done in a partial manner, many of them delayed to comply with the requisition. Macdonald of Glencoe was the most obnoxious malecontent,—an implacable feud having prevailed between him and the dependants of Breadalbane,—and aware of the malice entertained against him by the latter, he hastened, in December 1691, to take the oath of allegiance before Colonel Hill, commander of Fort-William, who gave him a letter of protection, and sent him to the sheriff of Argyllshire at Inverary. A violent storm, however, prevented his arrival there till a day or two beyond the specified period. The sheriff, considering the necessity of the case, yielded to Macdonald's entreaties, took his oath, and transmitted it

instantly to the clerk of the privy-council. But some leading member of that body basely concealed the fact of Glencoe's submission; whilst Sir John Dalrymple, called the Master of Stair, and the Earl of Breadalbane hastened to represent to the king that the Macdonalds were a set of perfidious wretches, who, living entirely by theft and rapine, were ever imbruing their hands in blood, hostile to all social order, and disloyal in the highest degree. In consequence of this cruel and unjust accusation, orders were issued to Lieutenant-colonel Hamilton, who employed under him Captain Campbell of Glenlyon, to compel Macdonald to submit to the king's authority. Accordingly, in January 1692, he marched with a company of soldiers, belonging to Argyll's regiment, to the valley of Glencoe. Macdonald having demanded whether they came as friends or foes, Campbell replied, as friends; and informed the unsuspecting inhabitants, that he was only to remain for some time in quarters among them; promising, upon his honour, that neither the chief nor his people should sustain the least injury. Upon this assurance, the officers were entertained with great festivity in the houses of the gentlemen, while the soldiers found a kind reception among the rest of the clan; and for fifteen days, joy, festivity, and mutual congratulations reigned throughout the valley. This happy state of things was, however, suddenly changed; for early in the morning of the 13th February, Glencoe's house was surrounded and himself shot. A universal massacre now commenced; boys, women, infants, and old men of fourscore, were butchered, and those only who fled to the mountains escaped. After committing this horrid deed they burnt the village, and carried away the spoil. Such wanton barbarity excited a violent odium against the government, under whose authority it was perpetrated. The king immediately appointed a commission of inquiry; and the guilt being traced to Dalrymple and Breadalbane, the former was in the meantime dismissed from his employments, and the latter was also subjected to temporary disgrace.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Charles II.? What took place after the king's accession? What attempt did Argyll make to rouse his countrymen? What became of Argyll?
2. Who were the ministers of vengeance in the Western Highlands? What steps did the king take to re-establish the catholic religion?
3. How did the presbyterians conduct themselves? What were the consequences of the king's conduct?
4. When did the auspicious period of deliverance arrive? How did James act on learning the approach of the Prince of Orange?

5. What took place when William arrived in London? What effects did his arrival produce in Scotland?

6. How did the Prince of Orange act with regard to Scotland? When did the convention-parliament meet? What alterations did they make in the national religion?

7. How did Balcarras and Dundee act? When was the battle of Killcrankie fought? What was the consequence of it? In what battle did William finally overthrow James in Ireland?

8. Whom did William intrust with the management of Scottish affairs? Who was the most obnoxious malecontent at this time? What unjust representation did Dalrymple and Breadalbane make respecting him? What was the consequence?

SECTION X.

1. AT this time, William's power was not fully established in Britain; for a party, who still considered James as their rightful sovereign, and who hence received the appellation of Jacobites, corresponded with him in his exile, while all who were discontented joined them in the hope of effecting a new revolution. The Scots, notwithstanding, turned their attention to commerce. In 1695, their parliament established an African and Indian company, on which they conferred the right of a free and exclusive trade, for the space of twenty-one years. This body immediately raised a capital of five hundred thousand pounds; and, at the recommendation of the celebrated William Patterson, planted a colony on the isthmus of Darien, for the prosecution of their commercial views. The settlers, however, experienced many difficulties and much distress, in consequence of the unhealthiness of the climate, and the jealousy of the Spaniards, the Dutch, and even the English, who refused them every assistance. The king and his southern legislature joined also against the infant establishment; which at length was obliged to surrender to a body of Spanish troops. The loss and disappointment which ensued from this catastrophe inflamed the public mind against William; and his ministers found it extremely difficult to prevent the Scottish government from adopting measures hostile to the interest and wishes of their sovereign.

2. The leaders of James's party were, the Duke of Hamilton, the Marquis of Athol, and his son Lord Tullibardine; the Marquis of Douglas, the Earl Marischal, the Earl of Errol, the Earl of Nithsdale, Viscount Kenmure, the Drummonds, and most of the episcopal clergy. The principal friends of William, on the other hand, were, the Dukes of Argyll and Queensberry; the Earls of Seafield, Melville, and Hyndford; Lord Drumlanrig, Lord Philiphaugh, Johnston, secretary of state; Stewart, lord-advocate, and Cockburn of Ormiston, lord-justice-clerk of the court of session. The king, being

seized with a fever, in consequence of a sudden fall from his horse, which produced a fracture of the collar-bone, died on the 8th of March 1702, in the fifty-second year of his age. He was acknowledged to be the most public-spirited monarch of his time; an able statesman and a brave general; deeply interested in the welfare of Europe, and zealous in establishing the protestant religion in his own dominions. He indulged in no guilty pleasures, nor aimed at any private ends; he taught the British to cultivate their maritime greatness; he lived beloved, and died lamented, after having occupied the throne thirteen years.

3. William was succeeded by Queen Anne, the only surviving daughter of James VII. The Scottish parliament met at Edinburgh, in May 1703, when the Duke of Queensberry presided, as her majesty's representative; on which occasion, the queen's right to the crown was solemnly recognised, and the presbyterian religion once more received the royal sanction. An unsuccessful attempt was made to procure their suffrages in favour of an act of toleration; while a law was passed, which took away from the crown, after the reign of Anne, the power of making peace or war. The Earl of Marchmont made a motion to settle the succession upon the House of Hanover, which excited such furious indignation, that he was threatened with imprisonment in the castle. The royal consent was, at this period, also obtained to a bill for the importation of French goods in neutral bottoms; but finding that she could not control the hostile spirit of this parliament, which had actually refused to vote the necessary supplies, the queen commanded her representative to adjourn it. She then endeavoured to conciliate the most determined of her opposers by bestowing upon them new titles of honour. Queensberry's connexion with Frazer of Lovat, who had accused the Dukes of Athol and Hamilton, occasioned his removal from the administration; after which the Marquis of Tweeddale was appointed to preside as commissioner during the next session. The members, though more compliant than before, succeeded, notwithstanding, in getting the Act of Security to be passed into a law; after which they granted a supply to government, pronounced a resolution in favour of a union with England, and then adjourned.

4. The principal provisions of the Act of Security were,—that, unless a satisfactory settlement of the rights, liberties, and independence of Scotland were obtained in the course of the present reign, the parliament should, on the queen's death, meet and name a successor, different from the person who might succeed to the English throne; and that the nobles and chieftains should, in the meantime, be at liberty to arm

and discipline their vassals for the national defence, in case of danger. The English legislature expressed their indignation at this act, by declaring the Scots aliens, and by prohibiting the purchase of their cattle; and the queen was requested to put the northern provinces of her kingdom into such a state of defence as might meet any attack from beyond the Tweed. In consequence of these violent measures, the animosity between the two nations was greatly inflamed. Ships of war were actually equipped and sent out against the Scottish trade; while, on the other hand, Captain Green, commanding an Indiaman, being driven by a storm into the Firth of Forth, was accused of murdering Captain Drummond and the crew of a native vessel, tried, condemned, and instantly executed. After a warm debate in parliament, in which Hamilton deserted the Jacobites, and joined the Dukes of Queensberry and Argyll, the appointment of commissioners to arrange the preliminaries of the union was confided to her majesty. Soon afterwards, however, the first of these noblemen, disappointed in his expectations of court-favour, once more threw himself into the arms of his former friends. Anne immediately named persons of suitable distinction, who met in the Cockpit, at London, on the 16th of April 1706.

5. The ablest and most active among the Scots, on this interesting occasion, were, the Duke of Queensberry, the Earls of Seafield and Stair, Sir Hugh Dalrymple, Cockburn, the lord-justice-clerk; Johnston, provost of Edinburgh; and Mr Seaton of Pitmedden. The most eminent on the part of England were, Cooper, keeper of the great-seal; Lord Godolphin, the Earl of Sunderland, Lord Halifax, Sir Charles Hodges, Mr Harley, Sir John Holt, and Sir Simon Harcourt. These functionaries directed their attention, with considerable sagacity, to the relative interests of the two nations; and finally agreed that, from the 1st of May 1707, a national union should take place. This treaty, consisting of twenty-seven articles, was signed by the commissioners on the 22d of July 1706; after which it was left to be ratified by the two parliaments and the sovereign.

6. The English, in order to accomplish their own designs, made such offers as overcame the opposition of the most powerful among the malecontents; and Queensberry being named lord-high-commissioner, twenty thousand pounds were sent to be expended in support of his household, and in the purchase of votes during the sitting of the union-parliament. This assembly met on the 3d of October 1706, and was opened, after the usual forms, with a letter from the queen, an address from the duke, and a speech from the chancellor, all strongly

recommending the measure. The treaty being printed, its opposers mustered all their strength. Its consequences were represented as ruinous; the most violent tumults in town and country prevailed; the Provost of Edinburgh was besieged in his own house, and would have been torn in pieces, had not the town-guard dispersed the multitude. Queensberry, too, was constantly saluted with the curses and imprecations of the people as he passed along the streets; his guards were pelted, and his attendants wounded with stones while accompanying him in his coach, which always drove at full speed. The document itself was publicly burnt at Dumfries; the convention of the royal burghs and the commission of the General Assembly petitioned parliament not to sanction its enactment; and every succeeding day increased the general indignation against a measure which was regarded as about to put an end to the national existence of Scotland.

7. In the midst of so much opposition, the ministry and their friends acted with great prudence and resolution. They magnified the advantages that would arise from the union to the trade of the nation; they held up to view the exclusion of a popish Pretender; they brought over to their party the Earls of Roxburgh and Marchmont, with the whole of their adherents; they disarmed the resentment of the clergy, by making the presbyterian form of church-government a fundamental article of the treaty, and unalterable in all succeeding times; and they soothed the African Company with the hope of indemnification. Queensberry's hands were ever open; his table was sumptuously spread for those whom he had gained, or was desirous of gaining; and the celebrated Daniel Defoe wrote pamphlets to prove the benefits of the measure, particularly to Scotland. In the meantime, the parliament proceeded to discuss the different articles in their order. The consideration of the first head occupied upwards of two days; during which, acuteness of distinction, strength of reasoning, vigilance to seize every advantage in the course of the debate, sublimity, vehemence, tenderness, and all the powers of eloquence, were eminently displayed. The Dukes of Hamilton and Athol spoke against it; Seafield and his coadjutors made an able reply; but the speeches of Seaton of Pitmedden, on the one side, and of Hamilton, Lord Belhaven, on the other, produced the deepest impression on the minds of the members. The Earl of Marchmont undertook to reply to Belhaven, and by a stroke of wit saved the honour of the ministerial party. He observed, "that he had heard a long speech, and a very terrible one, but that it required only this short answer: Behold! he dreamed; lo! when he awoke, he

found it was a dream !” When the first article had passed, the Opposition had recourse to the expedient of procuring addresses, petitions, and remonstrances against it, signed by vast numbers ; but as these failed to produce the desired effect, the Cameronians rose in the west, took possession of Glasgow, seized the arms and ammunition, threw open the prison-doors, and drove the magistrates out of the town.

EXERCISES.

1. Was William’s power in Scotland fully established? What commercial company did parliament establish? How did the colony of Darien succeed? How did the king act towards it? What was the consequence?

2. Who were the leaders of the party in favour of James? Who were the principal friends of William? What occasioned the death of William? What was his character?

3. Who succeeded William? What were the transactions of the Scottish parliament? How did the queen attempt to check the hostile spirit which appeared? What occasioned Queensberry’s removal from the administration? Who succeeded Queensberry as commissioner?

4. What were the prominent features of the Act of Security? How did the English parliament express its displeasure at this act? What were the consequences? What measures did the Scottish parliament adopt at this juncture? When did the commissioners meet to form the treaty of union?

5. Who were the ablest of the Scottish and English commissioners appointed to form the union? When was the union finally agreed upon? What was the number of its articles?

6. What measures did the English adopt to accomplish their designs? Who was named commissioner to the new parliament? When did the parliament meet at Edinburgh? What tumults took place about the union?

7. How did the ministry act amidst this opposition? Who were the principal speakers in parliament? Who undertook to reply to Lord Belhaven? To what violent measures did the Opposition resort?

SECTION XI.

1. AT this period the kingdom was in great danger, as several thousands were in arms under the command of two artisans, Finlay and Montgomery, who threatened to march to Edinburgh, and disperse what they deemed a corrupt parliament. This was the period for the Jacobites to have acted with advantage, but they were not united; Hamilton was timid and declined the enterprise; Athol, Stormont, Marischal, Errol, and Drummond, would not move without him; the abdicated sovereign came not to put himself at their head; and the French king neglected to send the necessary supplies of money, arms, and ammunition. In this emergency, the legislature instantly repealed that clause in the Act of Security which authorized the barons to arm their vassals, and sent Colonel Campbell with a small body of dragoons to Glasgow; on whose approach the rioters dispersed, when their plebeian leaders were seized and carried prisoners to the capital. No

attempt to save them was made by the members of the Opposition, who thus incurred much public odium. These politicians now proposed that all the freeholders of the kingdom, who were averse to the union, should assemble at Edinburgh, and, in one formidable body, address the lord-high-commissioner, to urge the treaty no farther. This plan was disconcerted by the caprice or timidity of the Duke of Hamilton; and in the meantime government having got notice of the design, issued a proclamation, forbidding the resort of the gentry to the metropolis during the sitting of the estates.

2. The Jacobites next resolved to make a stand at the discussion of that article of the treaty which for ever annihilated the Scottish parliament. Hamilton, ashamed of his former weakness, earnestly solicited his friends to protest against this abolition; to propose the settlement of the crown on the family of Hanover; and, if unsuccessful, to retire from the house. This proposal alarmed the friends of the union; but, when the important hour arrived the duke's courage failed, and he refused to make the motion, though he declared himself ready to second it. By this ill-timed refusal, the design of the Opposition was utterly frustrated. The Tories were highly exasperated; more especially when they learned, that, if they had withdrawn, their adversaries would have adjourned the parliament, and abandoned the whole scheme of the union as impracticable.

3. Every difficulty being surmounted, this celebrated treaty at length received its ratification. On the 16th of January 1707, all the articles were approved by a majority; and the lord-high-commissioner touching the act with the sceptre, it became law.—The clamours of the people, now too late to prove effectual, began gradually to subside. The union was afterwards ratified by both houses in England, on the 22d of January, and confirmed by the royal assent; upon which the Scottish parliament, after settling various matters of inferior moment, was prorogued on the 25th of March 1707, never again to be assembled. The main stipulations of the treaty are the following:—That the succession should be vested in the Princess Sophia and her heirs; that the united kingdom should be represented by one single parliament; that all the subjects of Great Britain should enjoy a community of privileges and advantages; that the sum of three hundred ninety-eight thousand and eighty-five pounds should be granted to the Scots, as an equivalent for such part of the duties of custom and excise charged upon that kingdom as would be applicable to the payment of the debts of England;—this sum, and all future equivalents, to be employed for reducing, or rather restoring

the Scottish coins to the value and standard of the English—for paying the proprietors of the African Company—discharging the public debts of Scotland, and encouraging its manufactures and fisheries;—that the laws concerning public right, policy, and civil government, should be the same throughout the united kingdom;—that the Court of Session, and all other courts of judicature, should remain as then constituted by the laws of Scotland;—that all heritable offices and jurisdictions should continue as formerly;—that the rights and privileges of the royal boroughs should be preserved entire; that the two estates should be represented by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners;—that all new peers should be peers of Great Britain;—that the crown, sceptre, and sword of state, should be left in Scotland;—and that all laws and statutes in either kingdom, inconsistent with these articles, should cease and be declared void. The conclusions which will be drawn from a careful examination of the treaty of union are,—That it has been very beneficial to both countries; and that the conditions, though apparently less favourable to Scotland than to England, were not unsuitable to the relative circumstances of the two nations.

4. In 1707, James, son of the abdicated monarch, sent Hooke as his envoy into Scotland, with powers from the French king to negotiate with those chiefs whose minds were still inflamed by the late discussion. Accordingly, the Drummonds, the Hays, the Keiths, Lord Stormont, and many of the Murrays, with all the distinguished leaders in the north-eastern counties, and the Cameronians in the west, engaged to muster five thousand cavalry and twenty thousand infantry, on condition that France should give them a monthly subsidy and other requisite supplies. In consequence of this engagement, the ambassador returned, and reported the success of his mission to Louis, by whose orders a squadron, consisting of five sail of the line, twenty-one frigates, and two transports, having the prince and some land-forces on board, sailed, in 1708, from Dunkirk. For this hostile attack the British ministry were totally unprepared; the strength of their army was on the Continent; there were not more than three thousand troops in Scotland; the Jacobites were become bold; the friends of government were alarmed; the English fleet could scarcely be got ready; the banks, owing to the demand on them for specie, were in danger of being reduced to sudden bankruptcy; and the chieftains in the north began to raise troops and arm their vassals. The French armament, however, retarded by stormy weather, did not arrive in the Forth till the 23d of March, which gave her majesty's advisers

time to prepare for defence; and, having despatched a vessel to Scotland to give notice of their approach, a squadron, under Sir George Byng, suddenly appeared. The invaders immediately directed their course into the North Sea pursued by their enemy; and although the Pretender earnestly solicited to be put on shore with his attendants only, the admiral, Count de Forbin, would not listen to him; for being closely followed, he found himself obliged to steer back to Dunkirk, where he arrived on the 17th of April, but not before he had lost one of his ships. After this unsuccessful attempt, the Duke of Hamilton, and all the more influential Jacobites, were thrown into prison and threatened with punishment; they however soon obtained their liberty, on condition that they should influence the northern elections in favour of Lord Wharton and the Tory interest, against Godolphin, Marlborough, and the leaders of the Whigs.

5. The first British parliament met on the 23d of October 1707, when Queensberry, soon after created Duke of Dover, was appointed secretary of state for Scotland. One party of his countrymen adhered to him, while the other, attached to Hamilton, Montrose, and Roxburgh, were inclined rather to support the opposition; but the duke, nevertheless, continued to conduct the administration of affairs in that kingdom till his death. He was succeeded by St John, Viscount Bolingbroke, one of the queen's favourite ministers. In the meantime, North Britain was gradually sinking into political insignificance; commerce languished; agriculture was discouraged; and a close correspondence was carried on between the Chevalier St George and his adherents, who were still very numerous.

6. England at this period was involved in a Continental war, in which, although the nation acquired fame by the victories of Marlborough, there was incurred a great expense of blood and treasure. An end, however, was happily put to it by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; after which, the ministry, in order to gain the Scottish nobles who were inclined to Jacobitism, advanced the Duke of Hamilton and his friends to places of power and trust in the administration. They likewise gratified the ambition of Argyll, and thus prevented the discontents of the presbyterian party; while they further won the episcopalians, by granting them an act of religious toleration. A statute was afterwards passed for restoring the rights of patronage in the bestowal of church-livings; but a resolution to extend the malt-tax to the Scots, notwithstanding their right of exemption, gave them a serious alarm, and provoked their representatives to demand as with one voice the repeal of the union. In consequence of this remonstrance

the resolution was withdrawn; the Earl of Mar was appointed secretary of state; the chiefs of the clans were gratified with pensions and commissions to levy independent companies; so that, by such conciliating measures, the opposition which the union had excited was almost entirely subdued.

7. Shortly after, her majesty died, on the 1st of August 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age and thirteenth of her reign. She was an amiable and virtuous woman; a good and public-spirited queen; a pattern of conjugal affection and fidelity; pious, just, and charitable; modest and unostentatious; possessing a gentle temper, with a kind and benevolent heart; ever faithful to the best interests of her people, for whom she felt a mother's fondness, and by whom she was universally beloved. In a word, if she was not the greatest, she was certainly one of the best and most unblemished sovereigns that ever sat upon the throne of England, and well deserved the expressive though simple epithet of—"The Good Queen Anne."

EXERCISES.

1. In what state was the kingdom at this period? How did the parliament act in this emergency?
2. What measures did the opposition adopt? What consequences ensued from them?
3. When did the treaty of union receive a final ratification? When was the Scottish parliament dissolved? What were the prominent features of this treaty?
4. When did James send an envoy into Scotland? What hostile attempt did the French make? How was the British government prepared to receive them? What became of the French fleet? What became of the Scottish Jacobites?
5. When did the first British parliament meet? How long did Queensberry conduct the Scottish administration? Who succeeded him in the management of Scottish affairs? What was the state of the country at this period?
6. In what war was England at this time involved? When did it terminate? How did the British ministry gain the Scottish Tories and others to their party? What acts were passed, and what other measures were adopted?
7. When did Queen Anne die? What was her character?

SECTION XII.

1. HER majesty Queen Anne was succeeded by George I., elector of Hanover, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, who was proclaimed King of England, Scotland, and Ireland, without opposition. After this solemnity, parliament met to congratulate him on his accession to the throne; they also voted payment of the subsidy of sixty-five thousand pounds granted to the Hanoverian forces who had fought in the British service; and offered the sum of one hundred thousand pounds, as a price set on the head of the son of James II. George sailed from Holland on the 17th of September; and on the evening

of the 18th arrived safe at Greenwich. The first act of his administration was the dismissal of nearly all the servants of the late queen. Marlborough was restored to the command of the forces; Cowper was named chancellor; Townsend and Stanhope secretaries of state; the Earl of Halifax was set over the treasury; the Duke of Montrose was appointed secretary for Scotland, and the Duke of Argyll commander-in-chief; Pulteney became secretary of war; Walpole paymaster-general of the army, and Sunderland lord-lieutenant of Ireland. This ministry acted with great imprudence; for, being jealous of the Tory leaders, they persuaded the king to adopt the most severe measures against them. As such treatment reduced them to extremity, they openly avowed their attachment to the house of Stuart. The consequence was, that, on the 6th of September 1715, the Earl of Mar set up the standard of rebellion at Castleton, and proclaimed King James III. The Earl Marischal, the Marquis of Tullibardine, Colonel Balfour, the Marquis of Huntly, the Earls of Panmure and Southesk, Mr Graham, and Brigadier Macintosh, proclaimed him also in all the northern towns of Scotland. The rebellion likewise broke out in the southern counties, where Viscount Kenmure accepted the commission of lieutenant-general under Mar; and, assisted by the Earls of Nithsdale and Carnwath, raised a considerable army. In Northumberland too, Forster, a member of parliament, and Radcliff, earl of Derwentwater, mustered forces to dethrone King George.

2. Mar, without loss of time, descended from the Highlands, and took possession of Perth, where the clans joined him from all quarters, so that he soon found himself at the head of twelve thousand men. He now resolved to make a diversion in Lothian; for which purpose he placed two thousand five hundred of his bravest troops under General Macintosh: and whilst he himself, by marching and countermarching along the coast, deceived the commanders of the king's ships, the detachment sailed from Crail in the night, and landed in Haddingtonshire. In order to draw the attention of the royalists from that quarter, the earl threatened Stirling, which drew the royal forces thither; upon which Macintosh, having rested his men one night, proceeded towards Edinburgh without opposition. In the meantime, the parliament enacted that the lands of rebel vassals should be forfeited to their superior lords, if they were loyal; and, on the other hand, if the vassals remained loyal, when their superior lords were guilty of rebellion, the former should be raised to the rank of independent freeholders. Under a suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, the principal Jacobites were thrown into confinement. The Duke of Argyll hastened

from London, and received reinforcements of militia from Glasgow, Greenock, Kilmarnock, and Nithsdale, to his army quartered at Stirling. On finding that town safe, he marched to the defence of the capital; to attack which, Macintosh with great celerity had advanced within a mile of the gates. Being here warned of the duke's presence at the head of a considerable force, he turned towards Leith, made himself master of the citadel, and obtained ammunition and cannon from the ships in the harbour. Argyll immediately proceeded to dislodge the rebel chief; but, finding his position too strong, was obliged to retire.—The other, disappointed in not receiving additions to his numbers, and, at the same time, straitened for want of provisions, evacuated the citadel by night, and marching along the seashore took possession of Seaton-house, the castle of the Earl of Winton. In the interval the duke, having learned that Mar, with ten thousand men, had approached as far as Dunblane to reduce Stirling, hastened back with all his troops to save it from falling into his hands.

3. While such was the state of affairs in the west, Kenmure, Carnwath, and Winton, assembled the dependents and principal vassals at Moffat, intending to take possession of Dumfries; but were prevented by the loyalty of Lord Annandale and the gentlemen of the county. Being joined by Sir Patrick Maxwell and the Earl of Nithsdale, they proclaimed James III. at Lochmaben and Langholm. In Northumberland also, the Earl of Derwentwater, and Mr Forster with a body of armed cavalry, entered the town of Morpeth, where they observed the same ceremony, and afterwards joined Kenmure at Rothbury. Learning that Macintosh with his followers was approaching to their aid, they marched thence to Kelso, where they likewise proclaimed the Pretender, seized the ammunition, levied the public revenue, and raised contributions. Their force now consisting of six regiments of infantry, by no means complete, and ten troops of horse, after considerable debate they at last resolved to march into England. At Penrith, Lord Lonsdale and the Bishop of Carlisle assembled ten thousand men to stop their progress; but the rustics fled on their approach, and left the country open. Having obtained some money, the insurgents proceeded to Westmoreland, and fixed their headquarters at Lancaster. They did not, however, continue long in that town, but advanced to Preston; where, feeling too secure, they were suddenly attacked by General Wills on the 12th of November 1715. Though the Highlanders, under Macintosh and Lord Charles Murray, bravely defended the town for several days, yet, being abandoned by their allies, and hearing

that a fresh army under Carpenter was advancing against them, they were obliged to surrender.

4. During this period, Mar obtained possession of Inverness. By solicitations, promises, and threatenings, he prevailed upon others of the clans to join his standard; and despatched messengers to hasten the arrival of the prince with supplies of money, arms, and ammunition, assuring him that without these all their valour would be expended in vain. He also engaged the Macdonalds and Macleans to make a diversion in the counties of Argyll and Dumbarton; sent detachments to seize the strong posts of Balquhiddy and Menteith; made himself master of the shires of Clackmannan and Stirling on the banks of the Forth; fortified Perth, and levied contributions, but without having recourse to wanton depredation or cruelty. Meanwhile the presbyterians in the west defended the rights of King George with the greatest vigour; troops arrived from Ireland to augment Argyll's army; the chiefs of the Campbells strengthened Inverary; and in the north Fraser of Lovat retook Inverness. The affairs of the rebels now became desperate, as the loyalists had provisions and ammunition of all kinds, while the other party could not without the utmost difficulty support their troops; the Pretender had neither arrived in person, nor sent any supplies; and no gratifying intelligence had been received of the southern expedition, to sooth the anxious cares of the earl, and animate the spirits of his Highland followers. In the midst of these difficulties, Mar determined, in a council of war held at Perth, to send a detachment to make a feigned attempt to force a passage at Stirling bridge, while the main body crossed the stream a few miles above it. If Argyll should follow the latter, then the former division was instructed to seize the town and castle, and afterwards to attack the rear of the enemy.

5. This skilful plan, however, being revealed to the royal general by certain spies who had found admittance into the camp of the insurgents, he immediately resolved to frustrate it; and accordingly, leaving a sufficient force for the defence of Stirling, he advanced with the rest of his army, about five thousand men, to Sheriff-muir in the neighbourhood of Dunblane, where a desperate engagement took place, on the 13th of November 1715. Both armies being drawn up, Mar boldly began the attack at the head of his right wing, composed of the Macdonalds, the Macleans, the Campbells attached to Breadalbane, the Ogilvies, and the Gordons, who, in less than ten minutes, furiously drove the left wing of their antagonists from the ground, and pursued them nearly a mile with

great slaughter. In the meantime, Argyll, with his right wing, consisting of six squadrons of horse and five battalions of foot, attacked the left wing of the rebels, and notwithstanding a gallant defence, dislodged them from their position. Ten times did they attempt to rally, as if with desperate determination to wrest the victory from him, but in vain; he pursued them three miles, and took their waggons, part of their artillery, and a great number of colours and standards. In this battle, both sides claimed the victory; the royal army had taken a greater number of prisoners, but suffered a much severer loss in killed and wounded. The former lamented the death of Lord Forfar; while their opponents wept over the fall of Lord Strathmore and the brave Macdonald of Clanronald. Argyll afterwards retreated to Stirling; and Mar withdrew to Perth, where he was reduced to great distress, by the desertion of his men, the want of ammunition, and the scarcity of provisions. The news of the defeat at Preston imbittered his other calamities, the weight of which however he is said to have supported with a vigour of mind worthy of a better cause.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Anne? When did George arrive to take possession of the throne? Who composed the new administration? In what manner did this ministry act? When did Mar set up the Pretender's standard? By whom was he joined?

2. What were his subsequent operations? What law did parliament enact in consequence of Mar's rebellion? What became of the principal Jacobites? How did Argyll act in endeavouring to suppress the Jacobites?

3. What were the operations of Kenmure, Carnwath, and Winton? At what places did they proclaim James III.? When was the battle of Preston fought?

4. How was Mar employed during this period? What measures did he adopt to ensure success? What opposition had he to encounter? What plan did he concert in the midst of his difficulties?

5. How was Mar's plan disconcerted? What was the consequence? When was the battle of Sheriff-muir fought? Who gained the victory? What was the loss sustained by both armies? What were their subsequent movements?

SECTION XIII.

1. AFTER the battle of Sheriff-muir, Argyll received a large reinforcement; and knowing the condition of the other party, he determined to press forward and complete his triumph. Mar, placed in the greatest extremity, resolved to abandon Perth; and seeing no other resource but either to make peace with the government for himself and his followers, or go into exile, he endeavoured to open a negotiation. Argyll, however, had no authority to grant them any terms. The Marquis of Huntly and Lord Seaforth returned home to their estates; and while the earl was at a loss what steps to take, he received information that James had landed at Peterhead, on the 22d

of December. This intelligence induced him to make another effort, however desperate, to retrieve their ruined affairs. Although the Adventurer brought none of those supplies which had been so long expected (the vessel which contained his money having been lost), yet his presence, and his manners at once dignified and amiable, revived the drooping spirits of his friends.

2. On his arrival at Aberdeen, the magistrates, episcopal clergy, and citizens, congratulated him in a formal address. Having promoted Mar to the honours of a dukedom, he continued his journey from Fetteresso, by the way of Brechin, Kinnaird, Glammis, and Dundee, to Scone. Thence he made an excursion to Perth, where he reviewed his forces, formed a regular council, and published six proclamations; one appointing a general thanksgiving for his safe passage; another, enjoining the ministers to pray for him in the churches; a third, establishing the currency of foreign coins; a fourth, summoning a meeting of the estates; a fifth, ordering all men capable of bearing arms to repair to his standard; and a sixth, fixing the 23d day of January for his coronation. In the presence of the chiefs, he made a pathetic speech, and encouraged them with fresh hopes of foreign assistance. These expectations, however, were never realized, as the death of Louis, together with the vigilance of Lord Stair, the British ambassador at the court of France, baffled all the solicitations of James's friends to obtain supplies of men and money from that country. The Duke of Orleans, who succeeded to the regency, and the ministry in general, instead of being inclined to aid the unfortunate heir of the Stuarts, at the risk of a new war with Great Britain, were more disposed to purchase the friendship of King George, even on the condition of betraying the interests of his rival.

3. Argyll now prepared to besiege James in Perth, having received a reinforcement of six thousand Dutch soldiers, supplies of all kinds in great abundance, together with the professional advice of General Cadogan, who was sent from London to assist him. In order to retard his progress, Mar, on the 17th of January 1716, by command of his master, burnt the villages of Blackford and Auchterarder, and destroyed all the houses, forage, corn, and provisions, on the way from Dunblane to Perth. Notwithstanding these obstructions, Argyll continued his route till within a day's march of the latter town, when the rebels evacuated it, and, crossing the Tay on the ice, proceeded with the utmost expedition to Dundee, whence they marched to Montrose, still pursued by the king's army. In this desperate state of affairs, Mar advised his sovereign to make his

escape; which he accordingly did, accompanied by the earl himself, Melfort, Lord Drummond, General Bulkley, and Colonel Sheldon. They went on board a small vessel which was in waiting to receive them, and, stretching over to Norway, coasted along the German and Dutch shores, till they arrived at Gravelines in France.

4. After the Pretender's departure, General Gordon took the command of the rebels, and marched them to Aberdeen. The infantry were disbanded in Badenoch, and betook themselves to the mountains, morasses, and forests, for safety; the cavalry, despairing of mercy, escaped in part by sea from Peterhead; whilst the remainder retired to the Orkneys, after engaging to take up arms in the same service when required.—Meanwhile Argyll, discontented with some orders he had received, hastened up to London to expostulate with his majesty, leaving Cadogan to conclude the winter campaign. This general accordingly proceeded to Aberdeen and Inverness; sending out detachments, which reduced the Mackenzies of Lewis and the Macdonalds of Skye. On the return of spring, he pursued with great activity the scattered Jacobites throughout the Highlands; but a proclamation securing pardon to all who should lay down their arms and return to their houses, contributed, in the most signal manner, to extinguish the last embers of this rebellion.

5. After the battle of Preston, many of the officers were condemned by a court-martial, and executed as traitors, having previously held commissions under King George. The Earls of Derwentwater, Nithsdale, Carnwath, and Winton, the Viscount Kenmure, the Lords Widdrington and Nairn, being impeached by the house of commons, were tried by the lords, by whom they were found guilty, on the 9th of February 1716. Upon their sentence being made known, the Countesses of Derwentwater and Nithsdale, almost frantic, threw themselves on their knees before his majesty, and implored pardon for their husbands, but in vain. The first of these two noblemen and the gallant Kenmure were led to execution, which they endured with much fortitude; but Nithsdale, on the evening before he was to suffer, was rescued by the dexterity of his lady, who, having supplied him with a female dress, remained in the Tower in his stead. Winton and Forster also contrived to make their escape. The northern chiefs, the Earl of Mar, the Marquis of Tullibardine, the Earl of Linlithgow, and Lord Drummond, were attainted, though they had fled beyond seas. At last, on the 15th of July 1716, an act of grace was passed, which delivered many of these brave men from the languor of confinement and the fear of punishment.

6. By the unremitting vigilance of the Earl of Stair, the British ambassador at Paris, who had ingratiated himself with the government, James and his friends, after their arrival in France, were deprived of all resources and even refused an asylum. In these circumstances they were obliged to retire to Avignon, in the Papal territory, and implore from Sweden, Spain, and Russia, that aid which Louis denied. In consequence of their earnest application to the King of Spain, a powerful armament, under the command of Ormond, set sail for the north of Scotland, in order to aid their cause. The ships were, however, shattered and dispersed by a storm off Cape Finisterre; and only two frigates, having on board Seaforth, the Earl Marischal, the Marquis of Tullibardine, four hundred soldiers, with two thousand stand of arms, arrived at Kintail in Ross-shire. Wightman, with a superior force, immediately attacked them and a body of Highlanders who had joined their ranks. The latter fled to the mountains, leaving the Spaniards alone, who, for several hours, defended themselves with great bravery in a ruinous castle, but were at last obliged to surrender at discretion.

7. The administration of Scottish affairs was now conducted by the Campbells and their friends. A strong body of troops was stationed in the Highlands, under Generals Wightman, Cadogan, Carpenter, and Wade, who kept the clans in peaceful subordination. Lord Lovat was gratified with a pension of four hundred pounds, and honoured with the command of an independent company; yet he secretly became a partisan of the Jacobite cause. This standing army, joined to a variety of imposts, became extremely burdensome to the Scots; the malt-tax, and the duties imposed on trade and manufactures, operated as a direct check in all cases where English capital was exposed to competition; and as continual feuds occurred between the merchants and the custom-house officers, a general spirit of discontent was excited. Among other unhappy fruits of this animosity, a riot took place at Glasgow in 1725, when the populace plundered the house of Mr Campbell, their representative in parliament. Two companies of soldiers, under Captain Bushell, endeavouring to disperse them, were pelted with stones, and having fired upon the crowd (without the sanction of civil authority), above twenty persons were killed or wounded. The people, seeing so many of their townsmen fall, were exasperated beyond all sense of danger; upon which Bushell thought proper to retreat to the castle of Dumbarton, whither he was pursued by the enraged multitude.

8. General Wade, being informed of this transaction, assembled a body of forces, and, accompanied by Duncan

Forbes the lord advocate, took possession of Glasgow. The magistrates were apprehended and conveyed as prisoners to Edinburgh, where, being tried by the lords of justiciary, they were declared innocent and discharged. Bushell was also put on his trial for murder, convicted, and condemned; but he afterwards received a pardon, and was even promoted in the service. Campbell at the same time petitioned parliament for indemnification, and received a certain sum, which was raised by a tax imposed upon all the beer and ale brewed in the city. To prevent the growth of this spirit of disloyalty, the government carefully cultivated the good-will of the established clergy, and granted the sum of £1000 per annum, to be employed in promoting civilisation and Christian knowledge among the poorer class of Highlanders,—a donation which has greatly contributed to extinguish the latent sparks of disaffection among that people. The landholders, about the same period, resolving to improve the breed of black cattle, dispossessed many of the inhabitants of their crofts and cottages,—a circumstance which occasioned much discontent; but in other parts of the kingdom the erection of banks, the trade to Germany, to the Baltic, to North America, and the West Indies, excited a spirit of industry, and increased the national wealth.

9. On the 11th of June 1727, George I. finished his mortal career. He died of a paralytic lethargy, when visiting his German dominions, in the sixty-eighth year of his age and thirteenth of his reign. He was a prince possessed of personal valour, had considerable talents for military command, was faithful to his engagements, and much attached to his personal friends. He intrusted the government of the kingdom in a great degree to his ministers, as he was himself ignorant of the language, laws, manners, and interests of his people; notwithstanding which, he maintained to the last a powerful ascendancy in the political system of Europe.

EXERCISES.

1. How did Argyll act after the battle of Sheriff-muir? To what distress was Mar reduced? When did the Pretender arrive in Scotland?

2. What took place after his arrival? How were all his designs disconcerted?

3. What movement did Argyll make with the royal army? How did Mar endeavour to retard his progress? What took place on the approach of Argyll towards Perth? What became of the Pretender?

4. Who took the command of the rebel army after his departure? What measures did General Cadogan adopt?

5. What became of the prisoners taken at the battle of Preston? What followed upon their condemnation?

6. What reception did James meet with in France? What hostile attack did Spain make to support the Pretender? What became of the Spaniards who embarked to invade Scotland?

7. Who conducted the administration of Scottish affairs at this period?

What was the result of their measures throughout Scotland? What riot took place at Glasgow?

8. What followed upon this insurrection? How did the government endeavour to suppress the spirit of disloyalty? What internal improvements took place at this period?

9. When did George I. die? What was his character?

SECTION XIV.

1. GEORGE II. succeeded his father, and continued Sir Robert Walpole as prime minister, while he confided the administration of Scottish affairs to Argyll and his party.—Upon the king's accession a new parliament was called, in which the government found a sufficient majority to support all their measures; and accordingly this influence was employed to augment the revenues, to maintain a standing army, and to grant subsidies to several German princes.—About this time, the Spaniards deprived the British merchants of all the advantages connected with the trade of the South Sea; but as the nation had enjoyed a long peace, its capital increased, commerce, industry, and knowledge spread among all classes, and the population of the kingdom was greatly augmented.

2. In the year 1736, the public attention was excited by the conduct of a contraband trader named Wilson, who with Robertson, a similar character, had been condemned to death, for robbing the collector of Kirkcaldy of a sum of public money. The former, by an act of extraordinary resolution, strength, and generosity, contrived to deliver his associate from the hands of justice in the following manner:—After sentence of death had been passed upon them, the two criminals were, according to custom, conducted without fetters by a military guard to church, there to join in the public devotions. Whilst thus engaged, Wilson, by a sudden effort, grasped with each of his hands one of the soldiers, seized a third with his teeth, and called to his comrade to run for his life, which he accordingly did, and made his escape. On the day fixed for the execution of the other, the mob, animated with sentiments of pity and admiration, surrounded the scaffold with the view of attempting a rescue; but deterred by the great strength of the city-guard, commanded by Captain Porteous, they did not make the attempt. After the unfortunate victim had expiated his crime, they gave vent to their feelings by pelting the guard with stones and mud; upon which some of the soldiers, roused to fury by such insolent conduct, discharged their muskets upon the populace. A few were killed, others wounded, while most of them fled in dismay; but a number of the more daring continued to press upon the guard, who again fired, and there-

by produced a fresh carnage. The relations of those who had been slain in this encounter immediately demanded the lives of the murderers, with a degree of rage which would brook neither evasion nor delay. Porteous being tried, was capitally condemned; and the whole people, exulting in the sentence, expected the execution of it with extreme impatience. Government, however, on learning the circumstances of the case, instantly reprieved him,—a measure which filled the citizens with the utmost indignation. A plan was immediately concerted in secret for despatching him; and multitudes flocked to Edinburgh from the counties of Stirling, Fife, Perth, and Dumfries, for the purpose of carrying their design into effect. The mob, at an appointed signal, rushed from their lurking-places, seized, disarmed, and confined the city-guard, and took possession of the gates, bells, and public magazines. They then broke into the prison where Porteous was confined, and, dragging him forth to the place of execution, hanged him on a gibbet; after which they retired, and all was quiet.

3. On learning this transaction, the king, queen, court, and ministry were exceedingly enraged; and the strictest orders were sent to the crown lawyers to discover the rioters, and bring them to immediate punishment. In consequence of these instructions, a reward of two hundred pounds was offered to any one who would give notice of the ringleaders, and all possible efforts were made for this purpose by the friends of government; but no discovery whatever could be made. Never, in fact, was the secret of a conspiracy kept with greater closeness,—a circumstance which tended the more to exasperate the administration. The affair was laid before parliament; and it was resolved to inflict a severe chastisement as well on the provost as on the city of Edinburgh. A bill of pains and penalties was accordingly brought in, but strongly opposed by the Scottish members; at whose solicitations it was from time to time so altered and amended, that at last it became altogether a dead letter. In order to give publicity to this act, the clergy were enjoined to read it from their pulpits; and all who refused to comply were threatened with the loss of their churches. These events tended not a little to alienate the minds of the Scots from the house of Hanover, to revive and extend the discontents of the Jacobites, and perhaps to lay the train which exploded in the rebellion of 1745.

4. Soon after the period now referred to, the French monarch, jealous of the English power, invited Charles, the eldest son of James, to Paris. This prince being a high-minded youth, who delighted to consider himself as the rightful heir of the first throne in Europe, and longed for an op-

portunity to assert his claims at the risk of every personal danger, joyfully accepted the invitation, and, in the disguise of a Spanish courier, hastened thither with eager alacrity. Louis not only received him with the most flattering distinction, but also offering him an asylum in his kingdom, speedily prepared a fleet and army for the invasion of Great Britain. In January 1744, seven thousand troops embarked, and the squadron sailed; the court of France entertained the highest expectations of success from the expedition; while the Scottish Jacobites, exulting in the prospect of triumph, prepared to receive Charles with open arms as their sovereign and deliverer. But all these hopes were blasted by the appearance of a British fleet, under Sir John Norris, who pursued the enemy's squadron, and forced it back into port. In consequence of this ill success, the cabinet of Versailles seemed to relinquish entirely the design of invasion; the adherents of Charles were distressed and enraged; and he himself lingered at Paris in extreme anxiety and dissatisfaction, still soliciting from the French ministry the aid which they had promised, and still amused with hopes which were not realized.

5. Meanwhile, encouraged by his friends in Scotland, who induced him to believe that his personal presence in the Highlands would be sufficient to attract around him a powerful and valiant host, Charles proposed to embark for that country. The French ministers, conceiving that they might, at a small expense, compel George II. to withdraw his forces from the Continent, gladly heard of this design, and promised to afford the prince every requisite supply for the expedition. Accordingly, about the middle of June, he set sail in a small frigate, accompanied by the Marquis of Tullibardine, Sir John Macdonald, Sir Thomas Sheridan, and a few other adventurers. After a narrow escape from being captured by an English ship of war which attacked his convoy, he landed near Inverness, where he was joined by the Camerons of Lochiel and other men of high honour, although they could foresee nothing but ruin in the enterprise into which he prepared to lead them. Charles erected his standard at Glenfinnan, on the 10th of August 1745, and soon saw himself at the head of twelve hundred men. In some encounters which took place with the royal troops the clans were victorious. Encouraged by this success, the Camerons, the Macdonalds, the Macleans, and the Mackenzies, assembled their vassals to make another effort for the restoration of the Stuarts. These men, it is obvious, acted a very unbecoming part, as they forgot at once the horrors attendant upon civil war, and the bounties which many of them had received from the Hanoverian kings; slighted the

blessings of the revolution government; and, in compliance with a false honour, a mistaken loyalty, vain prejudices, and unreasonable resentments or disgusts, rushed into a rebellion, which threatened alike to humble their country before its foreign foes, to renew and exasperate all its domestic dissensions, and to bring ruin on themselves and their families. On hearing of these transactions, Sir John Cope, who commanded in Scotland, advanced cautiously into the Highlands as far as Inverness; but the rebels, avoiding him, hastened down through the passes, and made themselves masters of the town of Perth, where the Duke of that name, the Viscount of Strathallan, Lord Nairn, and Lord George Murray joined them. After this accession to his strength, Charles crossed the Forth at Stirling, marching forward to Edinburgh, and, as there was not a military force sufficient for its defence, he immediately summoned it to surrender. To prevent an assault, the magistrates sent a deputation to the prince with terms of capitulation; but these were rejected, and, as the carriage which conveyed the deputies returned through the gate, Cameron of Lochiel rushed in with a party of his men, and secured the town without opposition. Next morning the whole insurgent army entered, and their prince took possession of the palace; having caused his father to be proclaimed king, and himself regent of all his dominions.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded George I.? What measures did parliament adopt upon the king's accession? In what state was the nation at this period?
2. What event attracted the public attention in Scotland? How did the mob act at Wilson's execution? In what manner did Porteous conduct himself? How did government act on learning the sentence of Porteous? How did the populace take vengeance upon him?
3. What notice did parliament take of this affair? What imposition was laid upon the Scottish clergy? What was the consequence?
4. In what manner did the French king exhibit his jealousy of the English power? What troops and other means were employed to support the young Pretender in an expedition into Scotland? What ill success attended it at first?
5. What subsequent measures did Charles adopt? When did he sail for Scotland? Where did he land? Where did he erect his standard? Who joined him afterwards? What were General Cope's operations? By what means did Charles obtain possession of Edinburgh?

SECTION XV.

1. **ALARMED** and surprised at the progress of Charles, the British government made every exertion to check it, and immediately set a price of thirty thousand pounds upon his head. George II. hastened from the Continent to defend his crown; six thousand Dutch troops were demanded, agreeably to treaty;

the English militia were arrayed; several regiments were recalled from Flanders; and the greatest part of the nobility and gentry offered their services. As soon as Sir John Cope found that the rebels had made their way into the richest counties of Scotland, he embarked his army at Aberdeen, and, after a short passage, arrived at Dunbar, whence, after being joined by two regiments of dragoons, he began his march towards Edinburgh. The prince immediately drew out his forces and proceeded to give him battle. The armies met on Tranent-muir, near Prestonpans, on the 21st of September 1745; Cope having with him about three thousand men, while the number of the rebels was only two thousand four hundred. The latter, however, encouraged by the presence of their prince, discharged their muskets, drew their broadswords, and rushed upon the enemy with the utmost impetuosity. This mode of attack was quite unknown in the military tactics to which British soldiers had been accustomed, and its impression was irresistible; for in less than ten minutes the king's troops were broken and totally routed. On this occasion, the brave and pious Colonel Gardiner, animated by all the generous honour of a valiant officer, and possessing an ardent love to the Protestant religion, though abandoned by the regiment of dragoons which he commanded, alighted from his horse, put himself at the head of some infantry who still kept the field, and bravely fought until he fell covered with wounds, in sight of his own threshold. The king's troops lost upwards of five hundred of their number. Their colours, artillery, tents, baggage, and military chest, were also taken. The victors lost only about fifty men. Their leader enjoyed his success with moderation, and prohibited all rejoicings on account of it. The wounded soldiers were treated with humanity, and the officers liberated on their parole.

2. In consequence of this victory, bands of Highlanders, who had not yet taken part in the rebellion, hastened to follow the Pretender's fortunes. He was joined also by the Lords Balmerino, Ogilvy, Pitsligo, and Kilmarnock; and powerful support was expected from the clan of the Frasers, with old Lord Lovat at their head. Charles, however, occupied in the idle and premature parade of royalty, uselessly protracted his stay in Edinburgh, employing his men in vain attacks upon the castle, while he allowed his enemies time to recover from their panic, and his friends to calculate upon the risks of their enterprise, and thus suffered the only moment when he might have marched for London, with perhaps some probability of success, to escape him. Taxes were imposed; the merchandise in the king's warehouses at Leith was seized

for his use; and a large contribution was exacted from the city of Glasgow. The clergy in the meantime were permitted to exercise their functions; and some of them prayed in public for King George, without being exposed either to punishment or molestation.

3. On the 6th of November, Charles, on foot in the Highland garb, began his march into England at the head of six thousand men. He entered it by the western border, took the town and castle of Carlisle after a siege of three days; and pursuing his route through Penrith, Lancaster, and Preston, arrived at Manchester. Here his arrival was celebrated by illuminations, and two hundred men, under Colonel Townley, joined his standard. Without meeting any opposition, he continued to advance till he reached Derby, only a hundred and twenty-six miles from London, which was now filled with confusion and alarm. Numbers in the metropolis prepared to take part with him; and it was generally supposed, that, had he boldly pushed on to the city, he might at once have become master of it. His own ardent spirit still burned to press onward to the capital, there to earn a crown or to fall gloriously in fighting for it; but as he had not lately received any supplies, the Highlanders were in want of every thing; the length of the march and the toil they had undergone began to exhaust their ardour; the French had not landed as was expected; few of the English had avowed their attachment; and three royal armies were preparing to surround him. For these reasons, a majority of his followers insisted that they must now provide for their safety by a speedy retreat.

4. Accordingly, on the 6th of December, the rebels commenced a retrograde movement, closely pursued by the cavalry under the Duke of Cumberland and General Wade; with whom they had frequent skirmishes, particularly at Clifton, near Preston, where they sustained some loss. But notwithstanding the attacks to which they were exposed in their march, the inclemency of the season, the want of every necessary, and the difficulty of local circumstances, they proceeded in good order, and carried their artillery along with them. With a view to retard the pursuit of the duke, they rather unwisely left a garrison in the castle of Carlisle, which surrendered after a siege of nine days. Meanwhile they continued their route into Scotland; having thus accomplished one of the most surprising retreats that ever was performed, during which their moderation and regularity were truly remarkable. No violence was offered; no outrage committed; and the soldiers were effectually restrained from plunder. Notwithstanding the excessive cold, the hunger

and fatigue to which they were exposed, they left no sick behind them, lost very few stragglers, and moved with the utmost deliberation in the face of their enemy.

5. On again reaching their own country, they proceeded by Dumfries to Glasgow, where they exacted supplies, made an unsuccessful attack on Stirling Castle, which was bravely defended by General Blakeney; sent parties across the Forth, and laid Fife under contribution; took possession of Dunblane and Doune; fixed their head-quarters at Perth, and secured the town of Dundee. In the meantime the royalists were making every exertion to defend themselves. The Earl of Sutherland, Lord Reay, Sir Alexander Macdonald, the chieftain of the Macleods, Lord President Forbes, the Grants, and the Munros, all came zealously forward in support of the revolution settlement. The Earl of Loudon with a regiment of Highlanders took possession of Inverness; and the city of Glasgow raised nine hundred volunteers, commanded by the Earl of Home. General Hawley also advanced from Edinburgh with a design to attack the rebels, and raise the siege of Stirling. On the 17th of January 1746, finding that they occupied a rising ground near Falkirk, he instantly detached his cavalry to drive them from their position, while he formed his infantry in order of battle. To meet this attack, Charles also drew up his men, who, by their steady and well-directed fire, and the fearless impetuosity with which they rushed forward, threw the horsemen into the greatest disorder, so that, recoiling upon the foot, they broke their ranks. Hawley, observing this disaster, with difficulty rallied the scattered dragoons, and led them back to the charge. The prince immediately advanced with a body of fresh troops, a second time repulsed the assailants, whose flight struck such a panic into the infantry, that they relinquished the contest, set fire to their tents, abandoned their baggage, and left their artillery on the field of battle. About three hundred of the royal army fell, among whom were Sir Robert Munro, Colonel Whitney, and several other officers of distinction.

6. The news of this victory revived the alarm at London; Cumberland was despatched to assume the command of the army in Scotland; six thousand Hessians landed at Leith; and a considerable force was again mustered at Edinburgh, consisting of fourteen battalions of infantry, two regiments of dragoons, and twelve hundred Highlanders, under Colonel Campbell, with which, on the 31st of January, he advanced to relieve the castle of Stirling. On learning the approach of this formidable body, Charles retreated towards the north,

the duke continuing to follow him with as much speed as the necessity of procuring provisions and the care of transporting his artillery and magazines would permit. As soon as the prince appeared beyond the Dee, Lord Loudon abandoned Inverness, and fled to the Isle of Skye; a loyal garrison, under the command of Sir Andrew Agnew, was besieged by the rebels, but relieved by a body of Hessians; Fort-William again sustained an ineffectual siege; the Earl of Cromarty, after taking up arms for the Pretender, was made prisoner by the militia of Sutherland; and a ship, with money on board, was taken on the coast.

EXERCISES.

1. What exertions did government make to check the progress of Charles? Where did Sir John Cope land his army to oppose him? Where did Charles give battle to the king's troops? What was the loss of the royal army?
2. What advantages resulted to Charles from this victory? How did he conduct himself in Edinburgh?
3. What measures did Charles now pursue? What was the route of his march through England, and how far did he proceed? What effect did his invasion produce in England? What induced him to retreat to Scotland?
4. When did the rebels commence their retreat? What plan did they form to retard the progress of the Duke of Cumberland? How did the rebels act on their route to Scotland?
5. What took place on Charles's arrival in Scotland? What exertions did the royalists make? When was the battle of Falkirk fought? How did the Highlanders obtain the victory? What loss did the royal army sustain?
6. Who assumed the command of the royal army? How did Charles act on learning its approach?

SECTION XVI.

1. THE return of spring put an end to many of the hardships which the rebels had suffered during the winter; but several of the clans, now completely discouraged, began to revolt. The French court, satisfied with the diversion which Charles had made to withdraw the English troops from Flanders, ungenerously violated their engagements; and, too selfish to risk any thing in his cause, afforded none of those supplies which they had promised to send him early in the year. In the beginning of April, the Duke of Cumberland began his march from Aberdeen. As the rebels suffered him to pass the Spey without opposition, he proceeded towards Nairn, where intelligence was brought him that they had encamped on Cullo-den-muir. On hearing of this movement, he advanced thither with his whole army to give them battle. The design of Charles was to surprise the duke's camp at daybreak. For this purpose it had been previously reconnoitred, and on the night of the 15th the Highlanders commenced their march in two columns, intending to surround the enemy, and attack them

at once on all quarters; but meeting a variety of unforeseen obstacles, they were obliged to make many halts. Being under arms the whole night, many of them were faint with hunger and fatigue, and some were so overpowered with sleep that they were unable to proceed. Others dropped off unperceived in the dark; and the object of the attack being thereby frustrated, they retraced their steps to Culloden. They had no sooner arrived, than great numbers dispersed in quest of provisions; and many, overcome with fatigue, threw themselves down to take a little rest.

2. Their repose, however, was soon interrupted. On the morning of the 16th of April, the prince, receiving intelligence that the enemy were in full march to attack him, resolved to hazard an engagement, and caused his troops to be drawn up in order of battle to the number of nearly five thousand men, supplied with some pieces of artillery. Cumberland approached with his army, which amounted to eight thousand, and immediately formed them into three lines, disposed in excellent order. About one o'clock in the afternoon the cannonading began; the guns of the rebels were ill served, and did little execution; but those of the king's troops made dreadful havoc. Impatient of this fire, the clans advanced to the attack; and about five hundred of them charged the duke's left wing with their usual impetuosity. One regiment was thrown into disorder by the weight of this column; but two battalions, advancing from the second line, sustained the first, and by a severe fire soon put a stop to the career of the Highlanders. At this time the dragoons under Hawley and the Argyllshire militia pulled down a park-wall that covered their right flank, and the cavalry falling upon the rebels sword in hand, completed their confusion. The French piquets on the left bravely covered their retreat by a steady discharge of musketry; and then retired to Inverness, where they surrendered themselves prisoners of war. An entire body of the insurgents marched off the field in good order, with their pipes playing and the Pretender's standard displayed; but the rest were routed with great slaughter, and their prince compelled to retire. About twelve hundred were killed or wounded. The road to a great distance was strewn with dead bodies; and numbers, who, from motives of curiosity, had come to see the battle, were cruelly sacrificed by the undistinguishing vengeance of the conquerors. Charles himself, with Lord Elcho, and a few other attendants, withdrew on horseback, and escaped all pursuit; but the Earl of Kilmarnock and Lord Balmerino being made prisoners, were reserved for the punishment due to traitors.

3. In risking this engagement, the prince and his officers acted with great imprudence; for, had they either disputed the passage over the Spey, or retired to the mountains, and avoided a battle till the duke had been compelled by want of provisions and the local difficulties of his situation to retreat, they might have prolonged the war for another campaign. Still, however, its issue must have been ruinous to them, as they were constantly distracted by dissensions and jealousies, and had no prospect of succour from foreign powers. After his victory, the Duke of Cumberland took possession of Inverness, and ordered thirty-six of the rebels to be executed as deserters from the king's service. In the month of May he advanced as far as Fort Augustus, where he encamped, and sent off detachments to ravage the whole surrounding country. The castles of Lovat, Glengarry, and Lochiel were destroyed; the cottages were burnt to the ground, the cattle driven off, and the women and children, if spared from conflagration and the sword, were driven out to wander, houseless and without food, over the desolate heath. So alert were these ministers of vengeance in the execution of their office, that in a few days there was neither house, man, nor beast to be seen in the compass of fifty miles; all was ruin, silence, and desolation!

4. For the space of five months, Charles was surrounded by armed troops, that chased him from hill to dale, from rock to cavern, and from shore to shore. Sometimes he lurked in caves and cottages, without attendants, or any other support than the food which the poorest peasant could supply. Sometimes he was rowed in fishing-boats from isle to isle among the Hebrides, and often in sight of his pursuers. For some days he appeared in female attire, and even passed through the midst of his enemies unknown. To the kindness and zealous loyalty of Miss Flora Macdonald, who risked her own safety to protect and guide the fugitive prince in his wanderings, he was more than once indebted for his life. Learning that his disguise was discovered, he assumed the habit of a mountaineer, and moved about among the woods and heaths with a matted beard and squalid looks, exposed to hunger, thirst, and weariness, which greatly impaired his constitution. During this period he was obliged to trust himself to the fidelity of above fifty individuals, who ministered to his necessities with unremitting zeal, and, although they knew that a price of thirty thousand pounds was set on his head, scorned to betray him.—At length, on the 20th of September, he embarked on board a privateer, accompanied by Cameron of Lochiel, with a few other exiles; and, after passing through

a British squadron in a fog, arrived in safety on the coast of France.

5. From the English metropolis to the northern extremity of the Highlands the jails were now filled with prisoners. All who had been formerly in the service of King George were put to death as traitors and deserters; seventeen persons suffered at London, nine at Carlisle, six at Bampton, seven at Penrith, eleven at York; and great numbers were crowded together in the holds of ships, where they perished in the most deplorable manner, for want of food, air, and exercise.—The Earl of Kilmarnock, and the Lords Lovat and Balmerino, were charged with high treason, tried, and condemned to death. The first lamented the error which had engaged him in the Pretender's service; Lovat, though upwards of eighty years of age, exhibited a coolness and indifference which seemed to set death and ignominy at defiance; and Balmerino exulted in his attachment to the cause of Charles. The brother of the late Earl of Derwentwater, who had been condemned in 1716, was also taken and executed.

6. The prudence and humanity of President Forbes, and of Fletcher, lord Milton, eminently appeared on this occasion. Having, as judges, the greatest influence in determining the fate of those who had been engaged in this rebellion, they contributed essentially to suppress its spirit, with the least possible suffering to the misguided individuals. An act of parliament was passed ordering the forfeited estates to be valued by the Court of Session, and annexed unalienably to the crown, after satisfaction had been made to the lawful creditors. The king was also empowered to appoint commissioners for managing the confiscated properties. These were enabled to grant leases of small farms, not above twenty pounds a-year, to such persons as should take an oath to government to reside upon and cultivate the lands. The rents were applied to such purposes as seemed calculated to civilize and improve the Highlands.

7. The principal causes which rendered the mountaineers so averse to own the authority of the national government, were the attachment of the clans to their chieftains, and the power which these last derived from the union of hereditary jurisdiction with patriarchal authority and the property of the soil. In order to destroy this influence, the crown purchased from the nobles and gentry the ancient right of administering justice which had descended in their tribes. The purchase-money taught the Celtic chiefs the use of wealth, gradually destroyed the genuine spirit of chieftainship, and burst asunder the ties of clannish dependency. Government also erected

Fort George, near Inverness, opened up the Highlands by new roads, augmented the number of their soldiers, invited the youth to serve in the king's armies, and obliged them to lay aside their peculiar dress, and clothe themselves in the fashion of the Lowlanders. To conclude:—What Scotsman can review the history of his native country without adoring that vigilant and gracious Providence by which she has gradually risen from barbarism, ignorance, and anarchy, to civilisation, science, and order! Ought not her numerous deliverances from civil oppression and ecclesiastical tyranny, and that wonderful combination of circumstances by which both her temporal and spiritual privileges have been acquired, enlarged, and maintained, to make a deep impression upon every heart? THE SCOTTISH YOUTH ought undoubtedly to make themselves familiarly acquainted with these important events, in order to form a just estimate of the advantages which they enjoy; and, by an assiduous improvement of their invaluable opportunities in early life, prepare themselves, through the Divine blessing, for acting a part conducive to their own individual happiness, and to the honour and prosperity of their father-land!

EXERCISES.

1. How did the clans act on the return of spring? What were the subsequent operations of the royal army? What was the design of Charles in advancing from his position?

2. When was the battle of Culloden fought? What was the number of each army? In what manner did the Highlanders begin the battle? How did the royal army gain the victory? Who covered the retreat of the rebels? What number of them was slain or wounded? What became of Charles?

3. What imprudence did Charles discover in hazarding this battle? In what manner did the Duke of Cumberland improve his victory? What ravages were committed by his detachments?

4. How long did Charles continue in the island? What perilous adventures did he undergo? By what means did he at length escape?

5. What became of the prisoners of war? What was the fate of the rebel lords?

6. Who showed humanity to the rebels on this occasion? What became of the forfeited estates?

7. What were the causes which excited this rebellion? What plan did government adopt to keep the Highlanders in awe? What are some of the most obvious reflections arising from the history of Scotland?

PERIOD VI.

SECTION I.

1. AFTER the settlement of the affairs of Scotland, a new war broke out with France, in which the talents of the illustrious

Pitt, earl of Chatham, were eminently displayed. Our soldiers distinguished themselves in the reduction of Quebec, under the immortal Wolfe, by which the British obtained possession of Canada.—In the East Indies, also, Lord Clive and General Coote triumphantly re-established the Company's affairs in Bengal, overcame the native princes, and captured Pondicherry. Our navy was likewise victorious under Admirals Boscawen and Hawke, who, after two severe actions, took or destroyed several French ships of the line near L'Orient.—In the meanwhile hostilities on the continent of Europe continued with various success. A body of British forces joined Prince Ferdinand in Germany, who gained a complete victory at the battle of Minden. But our countrymen at last began to open their eyes to their own interest, and to see that in Germany they were at a great expense waging an unequal war, for obtaining conquests which they could neither preserve nor enjoy. At length, during the administration of the Earl of Bute, a definitive treaty of peace between the two nations was signed at Paris on the 10th of February 1758, by which some solid advantages were secured to Great Britain.

2. On the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly, in the 77th year of his age and 34th of his reign. This prince was moderate and humane in his disposition; temperate and regular in his mode of living; personally brave, fond of military pomp, equitable in his government, strongly attached to his native country, and unwearied in his attention to the political interests of the Germanic body. During his reign, considerable progress was made in mathematics, astronomy, natural philosophy, and medicine; many ingenious treatises on metaphysics, theology, and ethics appeared; commerce increased; agriculture was extended to some of the most remote and barren provinces of the island; the mechanical powers were well understood and judiciously applied; music, painting, architecture, sculpture, and all the liberal arts, flourished throughout his dominions.

3. The king was succeeded by his grandson, George III., already in the twenty-third year of his age; who, after subscribing the oath relative to the security of the Church of Scotland, was proclaimed in the usual manner. He then issued one proclamation, requiring all persons in authority to proceed in the execution of their offices, and another for the encouragement of piety and virtue, as well as for preventing and punishing vice, profaneness, and immorality; after which, congratulatory addresses flowed in from every part of the nation. The following year he married the Princess Char-

lotte of Mecklenburg Strelitz, a virtuous and amiable princess ; and the ceremony of the coronation was at the same time performed.

4. In 1765 and 1766, the parliament passed certain acts, imposing duties upon stamps, glass, tea, painters' colours, and some other commodities in North America, which excited the most violent tumults throughout the plantations. Petitions were presented to the legislature against those acts ; and, after a long debate, all the obnoxious taxes were repealed, except a duty of threepence per pound on tea. This measure, however, did not restore tranquillity. After the rejection of various petitions against the continuance of that impost, preparations were made for war ; and on the 19th of April 1775, began the fatal contest which ended in the dismemberment of those colonies from the British empire. Hostilities were commenced by General Gage, who sent a body of troops to destroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed, and forced to make a quick retreat ; sixty-five were killed and one hundred and seventy wounded ; while the Americans lost only about sixty, including killed and wounded. The provincial congress of Massachusetts immediately voted a large army to be raised under Washington, who blockaded Boston. A desperate engagement followed at Bunker's-hill, in which the British lost eleven hundred men ; and shortly after they were compelled to evacuate the town, and sail for Halifax.

5. The revolutionary congress sent a second petition to the king for peace by Mr Penn, proprietor of Pennsylvania, who was informed that no answer could be given to it. This rash and unhappy refusal contributed greatly to exasperate the minds of the colonists, and they no longer confined themselves to defensive operations. General Montgomerie, with three thousand men, advanced into Canada, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderago and Crown Point, carried the forts of St John and Chamblee, and pressed forward to Montreal. Being joined by General Arnold, he proceeded to Quebec, which he attempted to carry by assault ; but fell as he was bravely advancing at the head of one of his columns. His colleague, however, though wounded and repulsed, continued the siege till the town was at length relieved.

6. The English government now resolved to pursue the war with vigour. They called in the aid of the Indians ; obtained eighteen thousand mercenaries from Germany ; and prohibited all trade and intercourse with the revolted colonies. An attempt was now made to take Charleston, but which completely failed. After these transactions, the Americans, on

the 4th of July 1776, declared their independence; and their leader removed his head-quarters to New York, which he fortified.—The British, having landed a strong force of thirty thousand men on Long Island, attacked the republicans under Sullivan, and completely defeated them. They afterwards intended to cut off their retreat; but this the genius of Washington prevented. Under cover of a thick fog he withdrew his army with such silence, order, and secrecy, that the victors, only a quarter of a mile distant, knew nothing of what had taken place, till the last boats were seen passing the river to New York, out of reach of the batteries. General Howe then endeavoured to bring his antagonist to action. This, however, the other avoided, and retreated to a strong position on the White Plains. The British, after taking Fort Washington, where two thousand seven hundred men were made prisoners, pursued the enemy to Princetown, where they were ordered into winter-cantonments. Rhode Island was also seized by the royalists; so that the cause of the Americans seemed at this period to be in a desperate condition. Notwithstanding this unpromising state of their affairs, the Congress adopted the most vigorous measures. They voted an army of eighty-eight battalions; and sent Franklin to treat for alliance and assistance at the court of Versailles.

7. On the meeting of parliament, the Earl of Chatham made a motion for addressing the throne, to put a stop to this unnatural contest,—a measure which was, however, rejected.—In the meantime, Washington, eager to retrieve the state of affairs, surprised three Hessian regiments at Trenton. Shortly after, leaving fires burning in his camp to deceive the enemy, he silently withdrew his troops in the dead of night, and, reaching Princetown by a circuitous route, attacked a brigade of British infantry, which he defeated with considerable loss. The English in their turn worsted the Americans in a battle at Brandywine, in which the latter lost thirteen hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. In consequence of this victory, Howe entered Philadelphia. The republican leader again endeavoured to surprise his enemy at Germantown, but was unsuccessful. The northern campaign, however, was most disastrous to our countrymen. General Burgoyne, after a march of incredible labour and perseverance, in which he conveyed all his heavy artillery over morasses of prodigious extent, and in the last forty days had been obliged to construct forty bridges, driving the provincials still before him,—at length came to the North river, which promised many facilities. Here the enemy collected on all sides; his provisions were reduced, and a

corps of his army, sent to obtain a supply, was cut to pieces. In this perilous situation he was attacked by General Gates, and, after two desperate actions, compelled to lay down his arms. Concessions were now made by the British government; but they proved too late, and were rejected by the Congress with disdain. In the meantime, the Americans had concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with France; in consequence of which a fleet of twelve ships of the line sailed to their assistance.

8. In the spring of 1778, the British army, now commanded by Sir Harry Clinton, while marching to New York with a long train of baggage, were attacked on their way thither by Washington. He was, however, successfully repulsed, and the other reached his destination without farther delay. About this time, an English squadron, with troops on board, took possession of Savannah. The grand fleets of Great Britain and France had an engagement in the Channel, but nothing decisive was effected; and before the close of the session of parliament, Spain was added to the number of our enemies. In the meantime, the colonial war degenerated on both sides into unconnected and predatory expeditions, till at length Charleston was taken by Clinton, when no fewer than six thousand of the allied troops were made prisoners of war. Lord Cornwallis afterwards carried the terror of the British arms to the borders of North Carolina.—During these transactions considerable alarm was excited at home by the junction of the French and Spanish fleets, to the number of sixty-five ships of the line, in the Channel, which they swept from shore to shore. On the approach of the equinox, however, the hostile squadrons retired.

9. In 1779, the coasts of Scotland were infested by John Paul Jones, formerly a servant in the Earl of Selkirk's family, now a naval commander in the French service, who, on the 17th of September, with three armed vessels, sailed up the Firth of Forth, with a view to burn the shipping in the harbour of Leith. He was, however, providentially prevented from attempting any thing by a strong westerly wind, which drove him out to sea. Proper precautions were taken to prevent success in case of a renewed attempt. Three batteries were erected in one day, two at the citadel of North Leith, and one near Newhaven, on which were mounted thirty cannon, besides howitzers and carronades. He took, however, several prizes, some of which he plundered, and then set them at liberty.

10. An event now occurred, which, for a time, engaged the public attention, and threatened even to endanger the safety of

the state. A motion having been made in parliament for leave to bring in a bill to rescind the penal statutes against the catholics in Scotland, the General Assembly, by a majority of one hundred voices, determined not to oppose the measure. This liberality or indifference on the part of the clergy excited much discontent among the people. An association was instantly formed for the defence of the national religion, entitled, "The Committee for the Protestant Interest," who established corresponding boards throughout the whole country, and resolved to watch over the proceedings of the legislature with the utmost jealousy. On the 2d of February 1780, the populace of Edinburgh attacked a dwelling-house in which the Roman Catholic bishop, with several families of the same persuasion, resided, and set fire to the floor of a house which had been fitted up as a place of worship. They then proceeded to an old chapel in Blackfriars Wynd, and demolished the furniture, ornaments, books, and vessels employed in the popish service; which, being brought out into the street, were thrown, one by one, into a large fire prepared for the purpose, amidst the shouts and acclamations of the surrounding multitude. After these disorders had continued several days, and the mob were directing their fury against Dr Robertson, the learned principal of the university, and Mr Crosbie, a celebrated advocate, whom they suspected of favouring the catholics, the magistrates becoming alarmed, published a proclamation, and called in the military, by whose aid order was at length restored. In Glasgow also similar outrages took place, but not to the same extent.

11. Lord George Gordon, the principal leader of the protestant association in Scotland, now proceeded to London, where he presented to the house of commons a petition for repealing the catholic bill, subscribed by one hundred and twenty thousand of his adherents. After this, the mob proceeded to insult and abuse many of the members of both houses, several of whom were in imminent danger. The greatest outrages succeeded for several days, during which Romish chapels, public prisons, and not a few dwelling-houses, were destroyed. Thirty-six fires, all blazing at one time, and in different quarters of the city, were to be seen from a single spot. Men, women, and children were running up and down the streets with such effects as they wished to preserve; while the reports of the soldiers' muskets firing in platoons, in different places, exhibited the appearance of a city sacked, plundered, and undergoing all the calamities of a war. The arrival of the regular force and militia having at length restored tranquillity, and relieved the citizens from their consternation, the most active

measures were taken to deter the multitude from committing further outrages. Lord George was committed to the Tower, where he remained till the 5th of February 1781, when he was tried for high treason, but acquitted. Twenty-five of the rioters and incendiaries were found guilty, condemned, and executed. Four hundred and fifty-eight persons are said to have been killed, wounded, and taken prisoners, in the various actions during these disturbances.

12. While the public tranquillity was thus interrupted at home, the war in America was prosecuted with unremitted vigour. The enemy was defeated by Lord Cornwallis at Camden; but the losses sustained by several detached corps of the British army quickly turned the tide of fortune. In the meantime, a large body of French troops, under General Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island.

13. The year 1780 was memorable for the declaration of that armed neutrality among the powers of Europe, by which they bound themselves to resist the English in exercising the right of searching neutral vessels. A treaty between Holland and America was also made known about the same time, in consequence of which letters of reprisal were issued against the former country.—The Spaniards having blockaded Gibraltar by sea and land, Admiral Rodney sailed with a fleet for its relief. After capturing seven ships of war in the Bay of Biscay, he next engaged fourteen sail of the line off Cape St Vincent, where he took and destroyed several of the enemy's largest vessels; and, after relieving Gibraltar, proceeded to the West Indies, where he had an indecisive engagement with the French admiral De Guichen. During the same year, Great Britain suffered severely by the capture of many valuable merchantmen.

14. After the meeting of parliament in 1781, Mr Fox made a motion for devising means of accommodation with America, in which he was seconded by Mr Pitt, though the war still continued with various success. In February, Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan captured the island of Eustatia, then of great value as a commercial depot, and also the settlements of Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo.—Tobago, however, was taken by the French; and the Spaniards conquered West Florida. A most desperate engagement afterwards took place near the Dogger-bank, between Admiral Parker and a Dutch squadron of equal force, commanded by Admiral Zoutman. They approached within musket-shot of each other before they opened their fire, and, after a cannonade of three hours and a half, the ships on both sides lay like logs in the water, incapable of mutual annoyance. The Hollanders, after

some time, bore away for the Texel, with the loss of one of their largest vessels, which sunk the night after the action.

EXERCISES.

1. What followed the settlement of affairs in Scotland? What success attended the British arms in 1755? When was peace concluded?

2. When did George II. die? What was his character? What progress did the arts, sciences, commerce, and agriculture make during his reign?

3. By whom was George II. succeeded? What took place after the accession of George III.? When and to whom was the king married?

4. What acts of parliament were passed in 1765 and 1766? What was the consequence? When did hostilities commence with the American colonies? What actions took place after the commencement of hostilities?

5. What was the effect of an application for peace? What offensive operations did the Americans pursue?

6. What means did the British government employ to carry on the war? When did the Americans declare their independence? What were the operations of the contending armies in 1776?

7. Who made a motion for peace in the British parliament? What became of it? What were the operations of Generals Washington and Howe? By whom was General Burgoyne's army attacked? What was the consequence? With whom did Congress conclude a treaty?

8. What were the operations of the belligerents in 1778? What circumstance occasioned an alarm in England?

9. By whom were the coasts of Scotland infested in 1779? What defensive measures were adopted?

10. What association took place for the defence of the protestant religion in Scotland? What outrages occurred in Edinburgh and Glasgow?

11. Who was the principal leader of this association? What outrages took place in London? By whose means was tranquillity restored?

12. How was the war in America prosecuted? Where was the British army victorious? Where did a body of French troops arrive?

13. For what was the year 1780 remarkable? What engagement took place off Cape St Vincent?

14. Who brought forward a motion in parliament for an accommodation of the differences with America? By whom was it seconded? What captures were made by Admiral Rodney and General Vaughan? What desperate naval engagement took place at this time?

SECTION II.

1. THE American campaign in 1781 commenced with the defeat of Colonel Tarleton by the provincials under General Morgan. In spite of this reverse, Cornwallis pushed forward into North Carolina, and attacking the enemy commanded by Greene, obtained a victory, though it was dearly purchased with the loss of six hundred men. He was obliged to retreat, too, soon after the battle; and, in less than twelve months, his antagonist had recovered both the Carolinas. In the meantime, General Clinton, who was threatened by Washington in New York, saw that commander retire to the south across the Delaware; and believing that he only meant this movement as a feint to divert his attention from the progress of the siege, suffered him to be joined by the French troops, which the fleet of Count de Grasse had brought into the

Chesapeake. The object of the American leader was to unite the other forces, which, in different bodies, were now moving to surround Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. On the 29th of September that place was invested by the combined armies; and, three weeks afterwards, the British batteries being completely silenced, his lordship surrendered his whole force as prisoners to the allied generals. This capitulation terminated our offensive hostilities in that part of the world. At the ensuing meeting of parliament, the disastrous events of the war were made known, and a new ministry formed, who commenced negotiations at Paris for a general peace. They also passed resolutions for the better management of Indian affairs; declared the independence of the Irish parliament; and made several popular acts for the better regulation of the domestic concerns of the country.

2. The Spaniards, in the meantime, had taken the Bahama islands. Nevis, Montserrat, and St Kitts, were captured during the former year; and with the view of also reducing Jamaica, orders were given to form a junction with the French fleet. Fortunately, however, before effecting this object, Admiral Rodney, on the 12th of April 1782, with thirty-six ships of the line, brought De Grasse's squadron, consisting of forty-four, to action. After a dreadful conflict, which lasted, with few intervals, from seven in the morning till towards night, the British took or destroyed eight of their first-rates, and among them the count's own ship, the largest that had ever been built in Europe. The island of Minorca, after a blockade of a hundred and seventy-one days, yielded to the power of Spain. Its emaciated garrison, scarcely able to pile their arms at surrendering, were overcome rather by famine and sickness than by the bravery of their captors, who were commanded by the Duke de Crillon, and amounted to sixteen thousand men.

3. The defence of Gibraltar, under Governor Elliot, was one of the most brilliant occurrences during this disastrous war. The besiegers having received an addition of twenty thousand men, and being supported by a powerful fleet and a number of floating batteries, entertained the highest hopes of success in their attempt to make themselves masters of that strong fortress. On the 13th September 1782, the combined squadrons and land-batteries opened a fire, from four hundred pieces of cannon, upon the garrison, who, in return, discharged their guns, loaded with heated balls, chiefly on the battering flotilla. After some time symptoms of confusion appeared on board the Spanish admiral. Towards evening the disorder increased throughout the whole line; the fire of the besiegers slack-

ened, and almost ceased before dark. During the night, their cries and signals of distress, and the appearance of a floating wreck with only twelve survivors, gave a proof of the powerful execution which the red-hot balls had produced. An hour after midnight, the admiral's ship was in one blaze. Others successively rose in conflagration, till, in the progress of the succeeding morning, the chief business of the British, besides completing the destruction of the gun-boats, was to save numbers of the unhappy crews from destruction. The enemy sacrificed in this daring enterprise upwards of two thousand men; while the defenders lost only eighty-four in killed and wounded. Shortly after, the brave garrison were relieved from famine by Lord Howe, who boldly sailed into the port, in the face of a superior fleet of the enemy.

4. The death of the Marquis of Rockingham in 1782 occasioned a change of ministry. The Earl of Shelburne was appointed first lord of the treasury, and Mr Pitt chancellor of the exchequer; upon which the treaty, which had been begun by the former administration, was brought to a conclusion. On the 30th of November, provisional articles of pacification with America were signed at Paris, and on the 20th of January 1783, they were ratified by France and Spain. The Thirteen United States of America were declared free and independent, and were to enjoy a full participation of the fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland and in the Gulf of St Lawrence. Great Britain ceded to France the islands of Tobago and St Lucia; the settlements of Goree and Senegal in Africa; Pondicherry, with other conquests in the East; and at the same time relinquished her claim to Dunkirk. France, on her part, agreed to restore all that she had taken in the West Indies. His catholic majesty was allowed to retain Minorca, together with East and West Florida, for which he gave up the Bahama islands. The preliminaries with Holland were not signed before September, when the states-general yielded Negapatam, in the East Indies. When these terms were submitted to parliament, they underwent the severest animadversion; and such was the strength of the opposition, that a new ministry was formed, under the Duke of Portland. Mr Pitt afterwards brought forward a plan of reform, for adding a hundred members to the county representation, and abolishing a similar number of the obnoxious boroughs. This scheme was, however, successfully opposed.

5. The same year a bill introduced by Mr Fox, for regulating the affairs of the East India Company, occasioned great commotions. It passed the commons, but was rejected by the house of lords. The loss of this measure gave rise to another

change of ministry in 1783, when Mr Pitt was appointed first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; and shortly afterwards a new parliament was elected. The young premier soon introduced a bill, the object of which was to place the affairs of the Company under the superintendence of a board of control, which, after a long discussion, passed both houses, and was carried into effect. The ministry next proposed a plan for extinguishing the national debt, by devoting one million annually for this purpose, which, in the course of twenty-eight years, by the surplus revenue and a saving of expense, was expected to produce four millions annually. The propriety of this measure being acknowledged on all sides, the motion was carried without a division.

6. On the 2d of August 1786, as the king was alighting from his carriage at St James's palace, Margaret Nicholson, under pretence of presenting a petition, advanced and struck at his majesty with a knife, but happily without effect. She was immediately arrested, and being found insane, was committed to Bethlehem hospital. The addresses of the people on this occasion evinced the strength of their loyalty. In the course of 1787, a treaty of commerce was concluded with France which opened an extensive market for British manufactures. About the same time, the English dissenters, a most respectable body, petitioned parliament for a repeal of the corporation and test acts; but their application was rejected by a large majority. This session was closed by a speech from the throne, in which his majesty, after expressing his satisfaction at the prosperous condition of the empire, lamented the dissensions which unhappily prevailed among the states of the United Provinces, in having resolved to suspend the stadtholder from his office of captain-general. This gave rise to a civil war, which was shortly after quelled by the King of Prussia, who, at the head of twenty thousand men, entered Holland, and compelled the Dutch patriots to submit.

7. On the 4th of November 1788, the nation joined, without distinction of parties, in celebrating the centenary anniversary of the glorious Revolution; but their attention was almost immediately afterwards called to a more melancholy object of public feeling. The king, whose health had for some time been declining, was now affected with fever and delirium. This event occasioning a suspension of the royal functions, parliament met, and, after considerable discussion, the Prince of Wales was elected regent, while the sovereign was committed to the care of Dr Willis. Amidst circumstances so important to the general interest of the empire, the Irish parliament asserted their legislative independence,

and voted an address to the prince, beseeching him to assume the prerogatives of royalty. The lord-lieutenant having refused to transmit their address, the Irish peers and commons voted an unqualified censure on his conduct, and sent commissioners to London to wait on his royal highness; but this measure was rendered unnecessary by the recovery of the monarch, which was announced to the legislature by the lord-chancellor. Innumerable congratulations reached the throne, from the peers and commons down to the humblest corporations; a solemn thanksgiving was celebrated throughout the kingdom; and his majesty made a public procession to St Paul's attended by both houses of parliament.

8. In 1792, a most astonishing revolution took place in France. Louis XVI. having been deprived of his royal authority, and a republican government been established, that beautiful country soon became the scene of discord, anarchy, and bloodshed. For a considerable period the scaffold was crowded with the best of her citizens; whilst men void of principle or humanity held the reins of power. Stimulated by the most enthusiastic zeal, however, they combated with amazing success the united efforts of the principal powers of Europe. The fate of the unfortunate king, who was beheaded on the 21st of January 1793, occasioned the immediate dismissal of the French ambassador from London. Enraged at this proceeding, the executive government immediately declared war against Britain; Mr Pitt read their declaration in the house of commons, justified his cabinet from the charges contained in it, and concluded by moving an address to support his majesty in the war. Soon afterwards the campaign on the Continent was begun. The French, under Dumourier, invaded the Dutch territory, and took Breda, Klundert, and Gertruydenberg; but the English, under the Duke of York, having entered Williamstadt, checked their progress. The imperial commanders, Clairfait and Cobourg, obliged the republicans to raise the siege of Maestricht, and drove them from Belgium. The defection of Dumourier, too, occurring shortly after, left them in a state of imminent peril, from which they were with difficulty delivered by the genius and courage of Dampierre. But this general having attacked the allies, was defeated with the loss of four thousand men, and fell in the action; and immediately after the victors took Valenciennes, Mentz, and Condé.

9. While the confederates kept together, nothing could withstand their efforts; but unhappily they separated, and the Duke of York laid siege to Dunkirk. After some time he was compelled to retreat with the loss of all his artillery.

Toulon, Marseilles, and Lyons, in the south of France, having joined the Jacobins, the inhabitants of the first of these cities surrendered their port and shipping to Lord Hood, who was at that time cruising in the Mediterranean. The republicans immediately laid siege to it, and, having gained the neighbouring heights, under the direction of Napoleon Bonaparte, who here first distinguished himself, bombarded the town, which was found to be untenable. Thousands of the people were taken on board the English ships, but many thousands more were necessarily abandoned to the cruel vengeance of their countrymen. Of fifteen sail of the line which had surrendered, only three were brought away.

10. While such vicissitudes of fortune attended the progress of the war, the internal tranquillity of the kingdom was disturbed by the machinations of those who were disaffected to the government. In 1794, a society was formed in Edinburgh, which assumed the name of the British Convention, and appointed corresponding societies in other parts of the country. Their avowed object was a reform in parliamentary representation; but far deeper and more dangerous designs were ascribed to some of their members. The ministry for some time kept a watchful eye over these associations, the meetings of which were attended with tumults similar to those exhibited by the French convention. At length, on search being made, a few pike-heads, battle-axes, and sword-blades were discovered in the possession of persons connected with them; upon which their principal leaders were seized, tried, and condemned for treason. One individual named Watt was executed; several were transported to New South Wales, and the rest set at liberty. The *habeas corpus* act was suspended in cases of suspected sedition; and, by these vigorous measures, the public peace was restored.

11. On the meeting of parliament some partial changes occurred in the administration; a large military force of two hundred and fifty thousand men, including thirty-five thousand foreign troops, was voted for the service of the year; a great augmentation of the militia, and of the volunteer corps, took place; and pecuniary subscriptions were solicited by government. Treaties were also concluded with Prussia and Sardinia. Meantime another campaign commenced, in which the French, under the celebrated Pichegru, drove Clairfait from Moneron, and obtained possession of Menin and Courtray. In June, the army of Jourdan, having passed the Sambre, and laid siege to Charleroi, the Prince of Cobourg risked a general attack at Fleurus, in which the allies were totally defeated. Charleroi and Brussels immediately fell into the

hands of the conquerors; and this was but the prelude to a succession of victories on their part. Ypres was taken by Moreau; the Duke of York was compelled to retreat from Tournay to Antwerp; and Ostend, Ghent, Mons, Oudenarde, and Nieuport fell, in rapid succession, into the hands of the republicans. In vain the stadtholder called upon his countrymen to support him by a general levy; disaffection or apathy every where prevailed. In the meantime, several strong towns in the French territory which the allies had possessed quickly reverted to their former possessors. The English army continued its retreat, pursued by Pichegru at the head of eighty thousand men, to Nimeguen, which place they were compelled to evacuate with great loss and confusion. During these events, the arms of the republic were equally successful in all directions. Clairfait, after successive defeats, was obliged to cross the Rhine; and on the side of Spain and Italy they obtained similar triumphs.

12. Amidst these disasters by land, it was some consolation that our navy supported its former glory. In February 1794, Corsica surrendered to Lord Hood, and the inhabitants wishing that the island should be united to the British dominions, Sir Gilbert Elliot assumed the power and title of viceroy. In the month of May, the French fleet, under Admiral Villaret, anxious for the fate of a large convoy from America, ventured to put to sea. On the 1st of June, Lord Howe brought them to action, when, after suffering an immense loss, the republican admiral sheered off, and was followed by all his ships in a condition to carry sail. Six remained in possession of the British; but he saved the merchantmen, amounting to one hundred and sixty, and valued at many millions. The brilliant successes of the enemy by land, induced the King of Prussia, the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and the Grand Duke of Tuscany, in 1795, to desert the allies. Yet, amidst these unpromising events, the speech from the throne recommended a strenuous continuation of the war; and a loan of four millions six hundred thousand pounds was guaranteed to Austria.

13. The trial of Warren Hastings, late governor-general of India, so remarkable for its importance, for the talents of its conductors, and for the length of its duration, was now brought to a conclusion. He was fully acquitted of all the charges brought against him, and had a handsome pension granted him for life. In the month of April 1795 were celebrated the nuptials of the Prince of Wales with the Princess Caroline, daughter of the Duke of Brunswick. The annual revenue of his royal highness was fixed by parliament at the

sum of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, exclusive of the rents of the duchy of Cornwall, which were estimated at thirteen thousand.

14. The sudden inroad of the French into Holland compelled the stadtholder and his family to make their escape in an open boat to the coast of England; upon which the whole country, following the example of their capital, submitted to the invaders. The Duke of York also departed for England, leaving the shattered remains of his army at Bremen. This campaign, however, was less disastrous to the allies than the preceding; for by a severe defeat which the French sustained on the Rhine, they were driven to seek shelter under the walls of Manheim, and obliged to raise the siege of Mentz. An unfortunate descent was made about this time in the bay of Quiberon by some thousands of French emigrants, who were debarked from a British squadron, with the hope of reviving the spirit of loyalty in La Vendée. They were suddenly surprised by the republicans; many were slaughtered, and fifty thousand stand of arms fell into the enemy's hands. At this period, the war had become extremely unpopular among the lower classes in Great Britain; and a scarcity also prevailed throughout the kingdom. Amidst this feeling of discontent, on the 29th of October a mob surrounded his majesty, a stone was thrown into the state-coach, and the interposition of the horse-guards was necessary to preserve his person.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the progress of the American war in 1781? What disaster befell Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown? What negotiations did the new ministry commence?

2. What victory did Admiral Rodney gain? What was the result of it?

3. By whom were the Spanish floating batteries destroyed in the siege of Gibraltar? What were the particulars of the siege?

4. When were the articles of peace signed with America? What were its mutual stipulations?

5. What new bills did Mr Fox and Mr Pitt bring into parliament respecting India? What was the consequence? What important measure was proposed by ministry and agreed to by parliament?

6. What attempt was made on the life of his majesty in 1786?

7. What melancholy event took place in 1788? How did the Irish parliament act on this occasion?

8. What remarkable event took place in France in 1792? When was Louis beheaded? What was the progress of the French arms?

9. Did the British succeed in besieging Dunkirk? What city surrendered to Lord Hood? What was the fate of Toulon? What remarkable character first appeared there?

10. What society was established in Edinburgh at this period? What became of the principal conspirators?

11. What took place on the meeting of parliament? By what generals were the allies defeated? What towns fell into the hands of the French?

12. Over whom did Lord Howe obtain a victory? How did some of the allies act at this period?

13. What important trial now occupied the attention of parliament? To whom was the Prince of Wales married? What was the amount of his annual allowance?

14. What became of the stadtholder and the Duke of York? What was the fate of an expedition to Quiberon? What was the spirit of the nation at this period? How did some of the London populace behave to his majesty?

SECTION III.

1. ON the Continent, the year 1796 was signalized by the most striking fluctuations of fortune between the arms of France and of our allies. On the side of Italy the career of the enemy was uniformly successful; and the whole of that beautiful country was compelled to purchase peace by immense sacrifices, in consequence of the victories of the French under Bonaparte, then a young commander.—In Germany, Moreau and Jourdan penetrated into the very heart of the empire, and forced the Elector of Bavaria to sue for a cessation of hostilities. At this critical period, the fortunes of Austria were restored by the gallantry of the Archduke Charles, who compelled the invaders to retreat, and pursued them three hundred miles. The Dutch fleet, too, consisting of nine ships, mutinied and yielded, without firing a shot, to the summons of Admiral Elphinstone. The same people also were deprived of their possessions in the East Indies. The Gallic faction in Corsica, assisted by some troops, drove our garrison from the town of Bastia, and obliged the viceroy to take a final leave of the island.

2. The warlike events of 1796 were concluded by an effort on the part of France to invade these dominions. On the 2d of December, fifteen thousand chosen troops, intended to act with the disaffected in Ireland, were embarked at Brest, accompanied by eighteen ships of the line and a number of frigates. Providentially this armament was dispersed by a storm, and only eight of their vessels appeared in Bantry Bay, from which they were soon forced by stress of weather. They narrowly escaped our fleet, and returned home with considerable loss.

3. A fruitless attempt was at this time made to conclude a peace with the republican directory, through the medium of Lord Malmesbury. During his stay at Paris, the court of Madrid declared war against Great Britain. After the failure of this negotiation, the language of the French and English governments breathed mutual and irreconcilable hatred; and new threats of invasion were again uttered by the former, which exciting a considerable panic in this country, induced the people to make a run on the bank of Eng-

land. This demand for gold and silver continued till the 18th of February 1797, when an order was issued by the privy-council, desiring that no payments should be made in cash, until the sense of parliament were taken. A committee being accordingly appointed to inquire into the solvency of the bank, their report allayed all ferment and alarm.

4. The general fear had hardly been quieted upon the subject of public credit, when it was again awakened by a still more alarming danger; namely, a mutiny on board the Channel fleet, which broke out in the month of April. The ships being entirely in possession of the seamen, delegates from them all met in Lord Howe's cabin. Two petitions were presented, in respectful but firm language, one to the house of commons, the other to the board of Admiralty, asking a small increase in their pay and pensions, together with a redress of some grievances. All these requests were readily granted, and order restored without a drop of blood being shed. A revolt of a more licentious nature broke out soon after in the fleet at the Nore, where the sailors, on refusal of their demands, seized some vessels laden with provisions, and, mooring their ships across the river, threatened to cut off all communication with the metropolis. The ministry ordered all the buoys to be removed from the mouth of the Thames, whilst furnaces and red-hot shot were kept in readiness at Sheerness and Tilbury in case of an attack. The firmness of government finally prevailed over these misguided insurgents, who at last struck the red flag of mutiny. Richard Parker, the ringleader, was executed after a solemn trial.

5. But the gallantry and success of our seamen formed a brilliant contrast to their temporary dereliction of duty. On the 14th of February 1797, Admiral Jervis, while cruising off Cape St Vincent with fifteen ships of the line, engaged a Spanish fleet, of twenty-seven, and, after a furious battle of four hours' continuance, captured two carrying a hundred and twelve guns each, one of eighty, and one of seventy-four. The victors lost only three hundred men, whilst the loss of the enemy, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was not less than six thousand. The brave admiral was created a peer, with the title of St Vincent, to commemorate his important triumph.—In the course of the summer an unsuccessful attempt was made upon the island of Teneriffe, in which the brave Nelson lost an arm. On the 11th of October, Admiral Duncan obtained a signal victory over the Dutch fleet, under De Winter, amounting to fifteen ships of the line, near Camperdown. In this engagement, Storey, the vice-admiral,

basely fled, leaving his chief, who, with the remaining ships, fought desperately; but at length he was compelled to strike, surrendering nine ships and two frigates, to the overwhelming force of the British. The carnage on both sides was great, but on the part of the Dutch it was terrible, five hundred men being killed or wounded on board two of their ships only.

6. In the campaign on the Continent this year Bonaparte completely beat the Austrians at Rivoli; compelled the pope to sign a most humiliating peace; forced the Archduke Charles to retreat to within one hundred and twenty miles of Vienna, where he was glad to agree to a suspension of arms. At a later period a treaty was concluded, by which the emperor renounced the Netherlands, and acknowledged the independence of the Cisalpine republic. After this event, Britain was left to combat alone with the enemy.—Another attempt at negotiation made at this crisis proved fruitless; upon which the army and navy were powerfully recruited; volunteer associations became more numerous; and gratuitous contributions were raised to the amount of one million and a half. The threats of invasion rather roused the spirit than excited the fears of a free and armed people; but the state of Ireland increased our danger.

7. After the refusal of Roman Catholic emancipation in 1798, a society, calling themselves the Association of United Irishmen, conspired against the government, and concerted a plan for a general rising; but fortunately their intentions were revealed, and seventeen of their principal leaders arrested. Notwithstanding this discovery, the insurrection broke out in various places; the rebels carried the town of Enniscorthy sword in hand, and took possession of Wexford. Flushed by their successes, they next advanced upon Ross, from which they were repulsed with immense loss. General Lake, by this time, had taken the field, and attacked their main body, consisting of nearly twenty thousand men, under a leader named Harvey, at Vinegar-hill. After a severe engagement, the insurgents, having sustained great loss, fled with precipitation, and rebellion was thus subdued in the south of Ireland. In the north, the malecontents, to the number of seven thousand, were defeated at Ballynahinch, and tranquillity was completely restored. Attempts, however, were made by the French to rekindle the expiring flame, and about nine hundred men, under General Humbert, landed at Killala, who advancing rapidly to Castlebar, where he was joined by numbers of the peasantry, repulsed Lake in a sudden attack; but shortly after they were compelled to surrender to Colonel Crawford.—A French squadron also, of one ship of the line

and eight frigates, was, in October, taken or dispersed by Sir John Borlase Warren.

8. While troops were this year assembling on the northern shores of France, and assumed the ridiculous appellation of the Army of England, a more formidable expedition was secretly fitted out for Egypt, which sailed from Toulon, under the command of Bonaparte, consisting of three hundred sail, and having on board forty thousand chosen men. On their way they captured Malta, where they obtained immense spoil, with more than a thousand pieces of cannon. Lord St Vincent detached Admiral Nelson with thirteen ships of the line and a fifty-gun ship, in pursuit of them, who, after twice crossing the Mediterranean, at length beheld their fleet, consisting of thirteen line-of-battle ships, in the bay of Aboukir, moored close to the shore, flanked by numerous gun-boats, and a battery of shells and mortars. On the 1st of August 1798, Nelson determined on a dangerous yet decisive manœuvre. He made the signal to double the head of the French line, by which means the whole of the enemy's van was attacked on both sides, before any of the other ships, rendered useless by being at anchor, could move to their assistance. The combat was long and tremendous. —At midnight the *L'Orient*, of one hundred and twenty guns, blew up with an explosion that was heard ten leagues from the scene of action. When morning dawned, victory was found complete: a seventy-four was burnt; two of eighty guns, and seven seventy-fours were captured; two ships of the line and two frigates made their escape, but were soon after taken. Bonaparte had debarked his army in Egypt about a month before the battle of the Nile, and in a short time brought the greater part of that country under subjection.

EXERCISES.

1. What victories did Bonaparte obtain in Italy? What took place in Germany at this period? What became of the Dutch fleet?

2. What preparations were made by the French to invade Ireland? How did they fail in their attempt?

3. What was the result of a negotiation for peace? What alarm did the threats of invasion by the French produce in Britain?

4. What took place on board the Channel fleet? By what means was order restored? How did the seamen at the Nore conduct themselves? How were they reclaimed to their duty?

5. What victory did Admiral Jervis obtain? What took place off Camperdown?

6. Where did Bonaparte conquer the Austrians? What was the consequence of his victory? How was the British nation affected at this period?

7. How did the United Irishmen act? What was the result of their insurrection? Where did General Humbert land? What became of his troops, and of a French squadron?

3. What expedition sailed from Toulon? Whither did it direct its course? Whom did Lord Nelson conquer at Aboukir? What were the particulars of the engagement? What loss did the French fleet sustain? What was Bonaparte's success in Egypt?

SECTION IV.

1. THE British, at the close of 1798, formed a treaty of alliance with the czar, who engaged, for a sum of money, to furnish forty-five thousand infantry and cavalry. Shortly after the peace which had been concluded with the Emperor of Germany, the French seized one of his principal fortresses, which put an end to a treaty insincere on both sides. Prince Charles lost no time in attacking the enemy, whom he defeated in three successive engagements, and drove once more beyond the Rhine. A Russian army, under the far-famed Suwarrow, having joined the Austrians, vanquished Moreau, and entered Milan in triumph. Turin, Alessandria, and Mantua, were also recovered.

2. The English government now attempted to rescue the United Provinces from the subjugation of the French. For this purpose, in 1799, an army of nineteen thousand British and seventeen thousand Russians effected a landing in Holland, and, after a smart engagement, took possession of the Helder. Admiral Mitchell also entered the Texel without opposition, and captured the whole Dutch fleet, amounting to twelve ships, eight of which were of the line,—their crews refusing to fight against the cause of the Prince of Orange. On the 10th of September, General Abercromby was attacked by the Gallo-Batavian army, in three large divisions, but he successfully repulsed them at every point. The Duke of York afterwards assumed the command, advanced against the combined forces under Le Brun, but was obliged to retire with loss. Two other sanguinary actions took place; provisions became scarce; and, in the meantime, the enemy was daily obtaining fresh re-enforcements. Overcome by these obstacles, the duke entered into a convention with General Le Brun, by which the invaders were suffered to retire, on condition that eight thousand French and Batavian seamen, then prisoners in England, should be restored to their respective countries.

3. Bonaparte had no sooner possessed himself of Egypt than he turned his arms against the Holy Land, and, invading Syria, commenced the siege of Acre, with a chosen band of twelve thousand men. The place was but indifferently fortified, and defended only by a small Mussulman garrison; but Sir Sidney Smith animated the governor to make a vigorous

resistance, and assisted him so effectually with a body of seamen and marines from his small squadron, that Bonaparte was baffled in eleven attempts to carry it by assault, and at length obliged to retire with the loss of eight generals, eighty-five officers, and nearly one-half of his army.—The British power was, in the meantime, preserved in India by the overthrow of its inveterate enemy Tippoo Saib, whose capital, Seringapatam, was taken by General Harris. The sultan's body was found after the engagement among a heap of the slain. The greater part of his dominions was seized by the Company. In the West Indies also the flourishing settlement of Surinam was taken from the Dutch, by a body of troops under Lord Seymour.

4. In October of this year, all Europe was astonished by the sudden appearance of Bonaparte in Paris. His return was quickly followed by his usurpation of the supreme power, under the title of First Consul, when he conveyed a direct offer of peace to this country, in a letter written with his own hand to the king. His Britannic majesty replied, through his secretary for foreign affairs, that he would seize the first favourable opportunity for concluding a treaty, but that at present there appeared to be none. The consul held out the same offers to the allies of England; but by them also they were rejected. Failing in these attempts to procure peace, he resumed in person the command of the army in Italy, where, as before, victory attended his standard; and the field of Marengo, in 1800, decided the campaign. By the loss of this battle, the Austrians were compelled to surrender all their possessions in Italy; and Moreau, having defeated them again at Blenheim, penetrated as far as the Danube, when an armistice was concluded. Hostilities were afterwards renewed; but the contest was disastrously closed by the battle of Hohenlinden, when the Emperor was obliged to sign a peace with France, by which he ceded all his territories on the left bank of the Rhine, the Belgic provinces, and all the dominions he possessed in Italy. To increase the gloomy state of our affairs, the Russian czar, the insane and capricious Paul, commenced a dispute with our government, under the pretence of opposing naval encroachments; and, without giving any warning, laid an embargo on all the British shipping in his ports. Sweden and Denmark speedily joined him in a convention to support what they styled the maritime rights of neutral nations.

5. On the 1st of January 1801, Great Britain and Ireland were united into one kingdom. This important union was established on the following conditions:—That the succession to the imperial crown should continue limited and settled accord-

ing to the act of union between England and Scotland; that the united kingdom should have one parliament; that four lords spiritual and twenty-eight lords temporal should be the number of Irish peers, and one hundred the number of Irish commoners, who should sit in the imperial parliament; that the churches of England and Ireland should be united into one Protestant Episcopal church; that a fair participation of commercial privileges should take place; that each kingdom should separately discharge its public debt already incurred; that for twenty years from the union the national expense should be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts out of seventeen for Great Britain, and two for Ireland; and that the laws and courts, civil and ecclesiastical, should remain as they were then established in either nation, though subject to future alterations by the united legislature. The number of members in the lower house has by the Reform Bill been increased to a hundred and eight.

6. At the meeting of parliament, in 1801, our claim to search neutral vessels was severely censured by the opposition, and ably defended by Mr Pitt and his colleagues. Shortly after, the whole of the ministry resigned, as they could not accomplish the full emancipation of the Irish Catholics,—a measure in which his majesty refused to acquiesce. A new government was immediately formed under Mr Addington.—In consequence of a coalition among the northern powers of Europe against Great Britain, an embargo was laid on all Russian, Danish, and Swedish vessels in our ports; and, on the 12th of March, a British fleet of eighteen ships of the line sailed from Yarmouth, under the command of Parker and Nelson, which speedily arrived before Copenhagen. The attack on that city being intrusted to the latter admiral, he advanced with twelve line-of-battle ships to force the approaches, which were defended by eleven floating batteries, a numerous artillery on the islands of the Crown and Amak, and by a strong squadron of different rates. After a sanguinary conflict which continued four hours, the fire of the whole Danish ships was silenced; and the greater part of them were either burnt or taken. As the cannonade from the islands still continued, Lord Nelson sent a letter to the prince-royal, stating, that if it did not cease, he would be obliged to burn all the floating batteries he had taken, without having the power of saving the brave men who had defended them. In consequence of this representation, hostilities immediately terminated; a result which soon led to a compromise between Britain and Denmark, and the secession of the latter from the armed league.—A few days previous to this action, the Emperor

Paul was strangled in his own palace, by some of the nobles who had entered into a conspiracy against him. The accession of his son Alexander opened the path to immediate conciliation between the northern powers and this country. England, upon making a few salutary concessions, was allowed to retain the right of searching neutrals, and commerce returned to its wonted channels. A convention with Russia was now signed, to which Denmark and Sweden acceded, on condition of receiving back from us their captured ships and colonies.

7. While the British navy thus gained additional lustre before Copenhagen, the valour and courage of the land-forces, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, were crowned with equal success in Egypt. No event of importance took place till the landing of our troops, on the 8th of March, in the face of a numerous body of French. On the 13th, a spirited action took place, when the enemy were driven to the gates of Alexandria. Menou, having arrived from Cairo with his whole force, advanced on the 21st, and attacked the British two hours before daylight. A desperate and well-contested action took place, in which the republicans were completely defeated with the loss of three thousand men killed and wounded; while on the other side twelve hundred men, including their brave leader, were the price of the victory.—The chief command devolved on General Hutchinson, who, after gaining several advantages over the enemy, compelled them to capitulate on condition of being allowed to return to Europe. On this occasion about twenty-three thousand men returned from an expedition, in which forty thousand had embarked under Napoleon Bonaparte.

8. In the naval campaign of 1801, Sir James Saumarez, with a small squadron in the Mediterranean, pursued a fleet of the enemy amounting to ten sail of the line, and succeeded in burning two and in capturing two more. The boldness and dexterity of this exploit deservedly received the thanks of parliament.—During these acts of hostility, flags of truce were daily crossing the channel, and couriers passing between London and Paris. At length Lord Hawkesbury, the British secretary of state for foreign affairs, suddenly announced the signature of preliminaries of peace with France, Spain, and Holland. The intelligence spread the most lively satisfaction throughout the country. The definitive treaty was signed at Amiens, by Lord Cornwallis, on the 27th of March 1802. The most splendid illuminations and fireworks were displayed in London and other parts of the kingdom, in token of the public joy at the termination of the war.

EXERCISES.

1. With whom did the British now form a treaty? Who defeated the French in Germany and Italy?
 2. What attempt was made to relieve the Dutch? What became of the Dutch fleet? With whom did the Duke of York conclude a convention?
 3. Who compelled Bonaparte to raise the siege of Acre? By what means was the British power in India preserved?
 4. How did Bonaparte act on his return to Paris? What offensive operations did he now commence? What was the consequence? How did the Emperor of Russia act towards Great Britain? What league was formed against her?
 5. When did the union of Great Britain and Ireland take place? What were the articles of the union?
 6. Under whom was a new administration formed? What naval expedition was now concerted? What victory did Admiral Nelson obtain at Copenhagen? What followed after this victory?
 7. What success attended the British army in Egypt? Why were the French compelled to return home?
 8. How did Sir James Saumarez display his valour? When was a treaty of peace signed?
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SECTION V.

1. THIS joy, however, was of short duration.—The continued encroachments of Bonaparte, particularly in sending a large fleet to the West Indies, in assuming the dominion of the Italian republic, in subjugating Switzerland, and taking other unwarrantable steps, justly alarmed the British government. As a necessary precaution against his ultimate designs, the ministry refused to deliver up Malta, of which we had obtained possession, unless France should respect the treaty of Amiens, and relinquish those countries she had seized in defiance of that treaty. This, however, she not only refused to do, but employed every means in her power to prepare an army for the invasion of England; expending, at the same time, immense sums in building flat-bottomed boats, and in fitting out, in the completest manner she could, the shattered remains of her navy. Britain during this important period was not an idle spectator of the extensive preparations which were going forward, not only in all the ports of her implacable enemy, but also in those of Holland and Spain; which countries, by the dissensions in their cabinets and the prevalence of revolutionary principles, were now become little better than the vassals of France. Adopting therefore the only alternative left, she, on the 18th of May 1803, declared war against Bonaparte; and immediately after this step, her hostile preparations corresponded with the magnitude of her resources, the patriotic spirit of her people, and the threats of invasion which were denounced against her. Besides the army of reserve, and the regular and supplementary militia, three hundred thousand men were immediately under arms.

2. A change of ministry took place in May 1804, and Mr Pitt came again into office.—On the 5th of October, Captain Moore, having under him a squadron of frigates, fell in with four Spanish ships of the same class, conveying specie from America to Cadiz.—An engagement ensued, in which one of the enemy's vessels blew up; the three others were captured and brought to England. The justice of striking such a blow, however, before a declaration of war, was reasonably questioned.

3. The machinations of Bonaparte in Germany and Italy provoked a third coalition of the European powers against France. Russia, Austria, Prussia, and Sweden, having again joined this country, the First Consul, who, using the vain threat of invasion, had assembled the principal part of his forces on the opposite coast, was perhaps glad to find an opportunity of giving employment to his men. Having re-enforced his army in Italy, he dismantled the flotilla at Boulogne, and, collecting his troops from Hanover and Holland, reached the Danube at the head of two hundred thousand soldiers.—His rapid annihilation of Mack's army, and his victory at Austerlitz, the 2d of December 1805, laid Austria prostrate at his feet, overawed Prussia, and enabled him for a time to set Russia at defiance.

4. Amidst the victories of France, the people of England watched with anxiety the motions of the enemy's fleet, which encountered that of the British, under Sir Robert Calder, off Cape Finisterre. Although Villeneuve's squadron was superior to ours by five sail of the line, yet, in the action which ensued, Sir Robert not only kept him at bay, but took two of his principal ships. The French admiral having joined the Spanish fleet, by which his force was increased to thirty-three line-of-battle ships, resolved to retrieve his fallen fame by engaging the British in the bay of Trafalgar. On the 21st of October 1805, as soon as Nelson descried the combined fleet, he gave orders to bear down upon them in two columns, his own ship, the *Victory*, leading the one, whilst Admiral Collingwood commanded the other. His last signal, "England expects every man to do his duty," was received with a cheer along the whole line. About noon the dreadful contest began by the leading ships of the British columns breaking through the enemy's centre; the others following, and engaging their antagonists at the muzzle of their guns. His lordship ordered the *Victory* to be run on board the French admiral, while his second, the *Temeraire*, ran on board the next, and in a short time the four were closed in one group. After a general and furious engagement, which continued several hours, Gravina, the Spanish rear-admiral, bore away for Cadiz. At four in the afternoon the

firing ceased, when it was found that nineteen ships of the line remained in possession of the British. The gallant Nelson, however, having been wounded early in the action, survived just long enough to hear the joyous tidings, and died with heroic fortitude. The public mind required such a triumph to console it, after the dismay produced by the misfortunes of Austria; yet perhaps it may be affirmed with truth, that the victory of Trafalgar did not recompense Britain for the loss of her brave hero.—Two days after the engagement, ten ships of the enemy, which had suffered least, having ventured out from Cadiz in the hope of taking such of the English fleet as were scattered by a tremendous storm, were not only repulsed, but one of them was added to the captures. Dumanoir, who had escaped to the southward with four vessels, fell in with Sir Richard Strachan off Ferrol, and struck after a hard contest.

5. Bonaparte having attacked the King of Naples, Sir John Stuart, who was sent by our government to the assistance of that monarch, landed in Calabria with five thousand men, and on the 4th of July 1806 gained a complete victory over a superior body of French on the plains of Maida. Britain likewise declared war against the King of Prussia, for having annexed Hanover to his dominions, and excluded our shipping from his ports. While these transactions were going on, Napoleon publicly expressed a wish for peace with this country. Lord Lauderdale was therefore sent to Paris, as accredited minister; but from the event, it appeared that this negotiation was entered into by the French emperor with an intention merely to conceal and pave the way for the execution of more extensive plans of aggrandizement; and accordingly the embassy failed of success.

6. Shortly afterwards, his ambitious designs began to be developed, and a treaty was made public, which detached Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and several smaller states, from their connexion with the German empire, and placed them under the protection of France, with the new name of—"The Confederation of the Rhine."—Holland also was, in the progress of his plans, made an independent kingdom, and his brother Louis placed on the throne. He next took possession of Bremen, Hamburg, and Cuxhaven, confiscating the English property found in those cities; and at length the King of Prussia, irritated by repeated indignities, declared war against him. Hostilities accordingly commenced, when the battle of Jena, in which the Prussians were defeated with great loss, decided the fate of their country. Bonaparte now marched

to Berlin, where, while he was creating new kingdoms and dukedoms, he issued, on the 21st of November, a decree by which the British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade. He set out from thence to pursue the King of Prussia across the Oder, while the garrisons of that unfortunate monarch, either from panic or treachery, seemed to be emulous which should be the first to surrender to the conqueror.

7. It was the capital error of Prussia to rush into the contest with France, without waiting for the co-operation of the Russians; and this people now exactly imitated the example of their defeated ally, in precipitately meeting the enemy, at a time when they could not maintain the contest. General Benningsen, at the head of their first division, had reached Warsaw, when a check which he received on the Vistula taught him the necessity of retreating to Pultusk, where, in a desperate engagement with Bonaparte, he lost eighty pieces of cannon. Another tremendous battle took place at Eylau, on the 8th of February 1807, in which the French were worsted. But the generalship and strength of Russia appeared to decline after this conflict; and, in spite of all her re-enforcements, the superior tactics of the French were conspicuous till the decisive battle of Friedland, which compelled her to submit to the invader. An armistice was at length agreed upon, on the 22d of June, after which an interview took place at Tilsit, between the Emperors Napoleon and Alexander, and the King of Prussia. Treaties of peace were successively concluded by these monarchs, which added greatly to the power and reputation of their adversary.

8. Britain, in the meantime, though disqualified by her situation from taking an active part in the battles of the continent, was nevertheless extending her conquests and her commerce in Asia, Africa, and America. In the East Indies peace had been secured by treaties with the native chiefs, Scindia and Holkar; and two French ships of war were captured by Sir John Borlase Warren. In the West Indies, a squadron of five sail of the line was, on the 6th of February 1806, attacked by Admiral Duckworth, with a force somewhat superior, near the island of St Domingo, and a severe engagement ensued, at the close of which all the enemy's ships struck their colours. On the 25th of October, Sir Samuel Hood fell in with a detachment of five frigates, and, after a smart action, succeeded in capturing four of them.—In January, the same year, the British forces, amounting to four thousand men, under Sir David Baird, landed at the Cape of Good Hope, and, after a sanguinary conflict with five thou-

sand Dutch troops under General Janssens, took possession of Cape Town, which surrendered by capitulation. The easy conquest of this important place inspired its gallant captors with new courage. Shortly after, General Beresford and Sir Home Popham sailed from thence with a small body of forces, and arrived in the river La Plata, near Buenos Ayres, where the troops were landed; and, notwithstanding their inferiority, dispersed the army of Spaniards opposed to them. The town was yielded on the 27th of June; and thus one of the richest colonies in South America fell into the hands of the British.—But on the 12th August following the whole settlement was recaptured by the Spaniards under Colonel Liniers, a French officer, when General Beresford and his brave little army were obliged to surrender prisoners of war. On the 3d of February next year, the important fortress and city of Monte Video, in South America, were also taken by General Auchmuty and Admiral Stirling, after a most determined resistance, in which our countrymen suffered severely.

EXERCISES.

1. What occasioned a renewal of hostilities? What immense force did Britain raise for carrying them on?
2. What change of the British ministry took place in 1804? What particular naval action was fought this year? How many Spanish ships were captured?
3. What powers formed a third coalition against France? What military operations did Bonaparte undertake against his enemies? What were the consequences of his victory at Austerlitz?
4. Who gained a splendid victory at Trafalgar? What were the particulars of the engagement? What became of the brave admiral? What subsequent captures of the enemy's fleet were made by the British?
5. Who obtained a victory at Maida? What was the cause of a rupture between Britain and Prussia? What plan of negotiation was now formed? What was its result?
6. What states composed the Confederation of the Rhine? What event decided the fate of Prussia? What decree did Bonaparte issue at Berlin?
7. What victories did Bonaparte obtain over the Russians? Between what monarchs were treaties afterwards concluded?
8. In what quarters did Britain extend her conquests? How many ships did Admirals Duckworth and Hood capture? By whom was the Cape of Good Hope taken? What success attended General Beresford? By whom was Buenos Ayres recaptured? Who captured Monte Video?

SECTION VI.

1. FROM the prevalence of the French interest in the United States of America, differences had arisen in Congress respecting the right, which the British exercised, of searching neutral vessels for contraband goods. These differences were further heightened by the circumstance of an American seaman being killed by a shot fired from his majesty's ship

Leander at a vessel which refused to comply with the disputed claim. This affair occasioned much indignation among all classes of people in that commonwealth.—Parliament was opened by commission on the 21st of January 1806. A change of ministry, which took place soon after the commencement of the year, introduced several subjects to the attention of the legislature, and gave rise to very important discussions. One of the chief of these was a plan proposed by Mr Windham for new-modelling the army; the principal feature of which was the raising of men for a limited time, instead of enlisting them for life, as formerly;—a scheme which, however defective in other respects, is certainly better suited to the genius of a free people, than an obligation from which only inability or death could give relief.

2. The trial of Lord Viscount Melville, by impeachment, occupied for a considerable time the attention of both houses. In the preceding session, a number of resolutions had been voted by the commons against that nobleman, for his conduct during the long period he had held the office of treasurer of the navy. The trial commenced on the 26th of April, in Westminster Hall; and on the 12th of July, his lordship was acquitted by a respectable majority of his peers, of all the crimes and misdemeanours laid to his charge.—On the 9th of June, Mr Fox moved and obtained a resolution of the house of commons, declaring the slave-trade to be contrary to every principle of justice, humanity, and sound policy, and pledging themselves to take every possible measure for its speedy abolition. An address was on this occasion presented to his majesty, requesting him to concert, with foreign powers, the means of abolishing for ever this inhuman traffic. Nearly forty-nine millions were voted as the supplies of the united kingdom for the year; and the tax on property was fixed at ten per cent. Parliament was prorogued on the 23d of July; and on the 24th of October it was dissolved by his majesty, a proclamation being issued for assembling a new parliament, to meet on the 15th of December. The bill for the abolition of the slave-trade was finally passed without a division, on the 16th of March 1807. This measure must always afford the most pleasing sensations to every friend of humanity, and is truly honourable to the British legislature. A change of ministry having taken place, parliament was again dissolved on the 29th of April 1807. On the 22d of June, this national assembly was opened by commission, but as it was prorogued in August, little business was done till December, when they were again brought together. On this occasion his majesty's speech recommended to their consid-

eration the late negotiation with France, and the propriety of cultivating an alliance with Sweden, as the last remaining hope of safety for the continent of Europe. Accordingly these subjects underwent ample discussion.

3. In 1806, a most unfortunate occurrence took place in the garrison of Vellore, near Madras. Orders having been issued, requiring that the sepoy, or native soldiers, should shave the hair of their upper lip, and erase some marks of religious distinction from the forehead, they immediately mutinied, and murdered several British officers, together with one hundred and seventy Europeans. The mutineers, amounting to six hundred men, were afterwards attacked by a party of dragoons under Colonel Gillespie, and the whole put to the sword.—About this time the treaty of amity, navigation, and commerce, between his majesty and the United States, was signed by commissioners appointed for that purpose. During this year, Louis Bonaparte, the new king of Holland, issued a decree, forbidding all intercourse with England; after which his Britannic majesty declared the ports of France and her allies to be in a state of blockade. On the 3d of December, a dreadful fire broke out at St Thomas's in the West Indies, which consumed nearly the whole of the town. The greater part of the inhabitants, however, escaped with their lives, though the damage was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds.

4. The French envoy at Constantinople having gained an ascendancy in the Turkish councils, Mr Arbuthnot, our ambassador at that court, in February 1807, presented a strong remonstrance; but, as it failed to produce any good effect, he was obliged to take refuge on board a frigate. Admiral Duckworth immediately entered the Dardanelles with his squadron, destroyed their fleet, and intended to have bombarded the capital; but was prevented by contrary winds, and the want of land-forces, from taking possession of the castles in the straits. From these forts, while on their return, the British suffered a most severe fire. Under the direction of French engineers, bullets, and blocks of marble of incredible size, were discharged from the mortars. One of these, weighing eight hundred pounds, cut the mainmast of the Windsor Castle in two, and the ship was with difficulty saved. Shortly after, a revolution took place in Constantinople, by which Selim, the reigning sultan, was obliged to abdicate the throne in favour of the new emperor, Mustapha IV.

5. In the month of March the important city and harbour of Alexandria, in Egypt, were taken by a body of five thousand men, under the command of General Fraser, who afterwards sent a detachment of troops to gain possession of Rosetta. They

having imprudently entered the place without examination, were so severely assailed from the windows and tops of the houses as to be under the necessity of retiring with considerable disadvantage. A second detachment was sent thither; but the enemy, having received great re-enforcements from Cairo, overpowered our troops, and obliged them to fall back with the loss of one thousand men.—On the 29th of April, a mutiny broke out in a foreign corps at Malta, who murdered some of their officers, and afterwards blew up the magazine, containing nearly five hundred barrels of gunpowder. This dreadful explosion occasioned much damage; but the mutineers were at length subdued, and their ringleaders punished.

EXERCISES.

1. What occasioned differences between Britain and America? What change took place in the mode of enlistment?
2. What remarkable trial occurred at this time? What was the issue of it? What means were adopted for the abolition of the slave-trade? When was it abolished by act of parliament?
3. What unfortunate occurrence took place at Vellore? What calamity befell St Thomas's in the West Indies?
4. What occasioned a rupture with the Ottoman court? What prevented Admiral Duckworth from bombarding Constantinople?
5. By whom was Alexandria taken? What mutiny broke out at Malta?

SECTION VII.

1. WHILE such was the state of affairs in Europe, an event occurred in America which tended to produce a serious disagreement between that country and Great Britain. As some sailors deserted from the British squadron and entered on board the American frigate Chesapeake, Captain Humphreys of the Leopard, having soon afterwards fallen in with that vessel at sea, demanded permission to search for the runaways. This liberty being peremptorily refused, the English captain fired a broadside into her, and killed some men and wounded others. After returning a few shots, the American struck; and upon being examined the men were found in her. The Chesapeake returned to Hampton-roads, where a knowledge of the facts now stated occasioned a considerable ferment. President Jefferson immediately issued a proclamation, interdicting the entrance of all British vessels into American ports; and the Congress afterwards laid an embargo on their own shipping. When this affair was made known in England, Mr Rose was instantly despatched to adjust matters with the transatlantic government.

2. The British ministry, having received intelligence that Bonaparte had proposed to the Crown-Prince of Denmark to shut the Sound against our trade, immediately resolved to

secure the Danish navy from the power of France, and, with this view, demanded the temporary surrender of their larger ships to be kept in one of our ports. To enforce this measure, a large armament of twenty-seven sail of the line, with one hundred transports, carrying twenty thousand troops, sailed from Yarmouth in July 1807, under the direction of Admiral Gambier. Lord Cathcart having taken the command of the troops, they were landed near Copenhagen without opposition. The Danish government having refused to comply with the conditions proposed to them, hostilities commenced on the 17th of August, and continued till the 7th of September, when the capital having suffered severely from a dreadful bombardment, the commander capitulated, and surrendered the whole of the fleet, amounting to sixteen ships of the line, fifteen frigates, besides gunbrigs, together with all the stores in the dock-yard, valued at two millions sterling. These were, with the utmost despatch, conveyed to England; and on the 20th of October the British army left Zealand, and arrived at Yarmouth, after a tempestuous voyage, in which one ship of the line and some transports were lost.

3. Despatches were received from General Whitelocke, giving accounts of an unsuccessful attack upon Buenos Ayres on the 5th of July, in which our army suffered great loss, and which was followed by the total abandonment of the provinces situated on the river Plata. Such was the disastrous result of an expedition to South America, from which great advantages were expected to the mercantile interest of Great Britain.

4. The treaty of Tilsit in 1807 was hardly concluded, when Bonaparte turned his eyes towards the west of Europe, and resolved on the subjugation of Spain and Portugal. He demanded of the court of Lisbon to shut their ports against England; to detain all British subjects residing in that country; to confiscate all their property; and denounced war in case of refusal. The Portuguese government, unable to resist the formidable army which was preparing to enter the kingdom, was obliged to comply with the first of his demands. Accordingly the ports were shut against our trade, and British subjects were compelled to leave Portugal with their effects. Notwithstanding these concessions, the French forces continued to advance; upon which the royal house of Braganza, consisting of fifteen persons, embarked for South America, under the convoy of a large fleet. Shortly after, Lisbon was taken by the invaders, whose excesses occasioned tumults, in which many lives were lost. By a decree subsequently promulgated, Napoleon united that kingdom to his own dominions.

5. The Emperor Alexander, beaten and overawed by the

French armies, sought refuge from the disgrace of submitting to their leader by affecting to become his cordial ally, and forthwith declared war against Britain, whose ambassador he ordered to depart, and whose property in his ports he directed to be confiscated. On receiving this intelligence, the privy-council issued an order, authorizing the capture of all Russian ships; and a large frigate, with a great quantity of specie on board, was immediately seized.—On the opening of parliament thanks were given to Lords Cathcart and Gambier, for conducting the expedition against Copenhagen with such success. Interesting debates now took place on that expedition; the dispute with America; the orders in council; the expedition to Portugal; the Russian mediation; the local militia; the distilleries; the Catholic petition; and other matters connected with the internal administration of the country. Both houses were prorogued by commission on the 14th of August 1807.

6. Shortly after, the island of Madeira surrendered to General Beresford; and the Danish islands of St Thomas, St John, and Santa Cruz, in the West Indies, were also captured by General Bowyer. A powerful combination having been formed by the Russians and French against the King of Sweden, that monarch concluded a treaty of alliance with Britain.—About this time, the Swedish frigate Freya arrived at Yarmouth, having on board Louis XVIII. of France, with a number of French noblemen.—The trial of General White-locke, for misconduct in the expedition which he commanded against the Spanish settlement of Buenos Ayres, commenced on the 28th of January 1808 before a court-martial. After having duly considered the charges against the prisoner, his defence, and the exculpatory evidence he adduced, the court were of opinion that he was guilty; and in consequence adjudged him to be cashiered, and to be declared unfit and unworthy to serve his majesty in any military capacity whatever. This sentence was confirmed by the king.

7. Bonaparte, with a view to reduce the Spaniards to a state of utter dependence on France, had called the flower of their troops to serve in his late sanguinary campaigns in Germany and Poland. Through his ambassador at the court of Madrid he fomented discord in the royal family, that he might assume to himself the arbitration of their differences. Shortly after, a large body of French having marched into Spain, the most violent tumults took place in the capital. The Prince of Peace was dismissed, and the king was compelled to abdicate the throne in favour of his son the Prince of Asturias, who assumed the government under the title

of Ferdinand VII., and concluded a treaty with Napoleon. After holding the reins of government for two months, the Spanish royal family were invited to meet the Emperor at Bayonne, where Charles and Ferdinand were forced by him to renounce all right and title to the crown, and resign it into his hands. Having thus violently obtained possession of the Spanish throne, he transferred it to his brother Joseph, who made his public entry into Madrid on the 20th of July 1808, attended by the members of the Bayonne junta. The new sovereign had a personal guard of ten thousand men, besides an army nearly double that number, under General Bessieres, to support his authority. This treacherous conduct roused the spirit of the Spanish nobles, who resolved to avert the humiliating state of vassalage which was so openly prepared for them. Several of the provinces rose in arms to drive the usurper from the throne. A general assembly of the patriots convened, who declared war against France, and immediately sent two deputies to London, requesting assistance to rescue them from such degrading tyranny.

8. The British government took a lively interest in their cause. Military supplies of all kinds were forwarded to them, and five thousand prisoners were immediately released, and sent home to assist their countrymen. Success attended the arms of the insurgents, who fought bravely in defence of their country. The French general Dupont, with an army of twenty thousand men, was obliged to surrender at discretion. General Moncey was also defeated, and compelled to retreat to Madrid with great loss. The defence of Saragossa displayed a heroism never surpassed in ancient or modern times. On the 24th of June, before any force could be organized for the protection of that defenceless town, nine thousand French troops, under General Le Febvre, took up a position which commanded its fortifications. Thrice had the inhabitants driven the enemy from their gates with great slaughter; and several detachments who had entered the town were cut to pieces. The enemy, having received re-enforcements of troops and artillery, again invested it. The citizens tore the curtains from their windows and formed them into sacks, which they filled with sand, and piled up before every gate in the form of a battery, digging round them a deep trench. Through their houses and mud-walls, the brave citizens broke out openings for the playing of musketry and cannon. The exertions of the men in this resolute defence were imitated by the women, and even by the children. Their heroism was only equalled by their industry; gunpowder was manufactured within the walls of the town,

although it was on fire in every quarter. At the end of two months of desperate exertion, during which the bodies but not the courage of the besieged were almost exhausted, the French opened a tremendous fire; the mud-walls were battered down, and the enemy's columns entering, got possession of one-half of the city, even to the central street. The brave inhabitants threw up their intrenchments within a few paces of them, on the opposite side. In daylight, it was almost certain death to appear within the space which divided the besieged from the besiegers; but during the night the fearless combatants often dashed across the street against each other's batteries. At last the ammunition of the Spaniards began to fail, and the people were calling out to be led to attack the enemy with their knives only; when, at this awful crisis, a convoy of provisions and ammunition, and three thousand Spanish guards, found their way into the town under Don Francis Palafox, the brother of the general. A council of war now determined that, if even the whole of Saragossa were consumed, the patriots should retire to the suburbs, and there defend themselves till they perished. The people shouted when they heard the resolution. For eleven days the conflict was continued from house to house, and from room to room, when the French had again lost all but about an eighth part of the city. During the night of the 13th of August their fire was particularly destructive; and when their batteries ceased, flames were seen to burst out in many parts of the buildings in their possession. On the morning of the 14th, to the great surprise and joy of the inhabitants, the enemy's columns were seen retreating at a great distance.

9. The patriots, however, had suffered a severe blow by the defeat of General Cuesta, who, in an engagement with the French under Bessieres, on the 14th of July, lost all his artillery, baggage, stores, and the greater part of his army. Notwithstanding this victory, such was the alarm excited at Madrid by the resolute conduct of the Spanish people, that King Joseph, after plundering the public treasury of the plate and crown-jewels, left that city at the head of his troops, and retreated to Burgos.

10. In the month of July, Sir Arthur Wellesley and General Burrard landed in Portugal, with twenty-seven thousand men, to assist the Portuguese, who had likewise risen against their invaders. Commencing hostilities, they gained several victories over the enemy at Villa Verde and Vimeira. Sir Hew Dalrymple having assumed the command, a convention soon after took place at Cintra, where it was agreed that the French should evacuate Portugal, and be conveyed in British ships

to their own country. During these transactions, the Spanish junta, instead of supplying their troops with arms and clothing, and improving the opportunity which the weakness of the enemy afforded them, remained wholly inactive. Suspicious of their generals, they failed to grant sufficient means to prosecute the war, and only deceived the multitude into a fatal security, by pompous proclamations, and false accounts of the national resources.

11. Meantime, Bonaparte, having ordered a levy of a hundred and sixty thousand conscripts, put his troops in motion towards the Peninsula, and following them himself, joined his brother with a re-enforcement of twelve thousand. After having defeated the Spaniards and retaken Madrid, he directed his whole force against Sir John Moore, who, subsequently to the convention of Cintra, had been induced to advance at the head of an army of thirty thousand men, into New Castile, to co-operate with the patriots. In this state of affairs it became necessary for the British general to use every means for securing his retreat, more especially as his stores were greatly exhausted, and the country entirely destitute of all kinds of subsistence. On the 30th of December his troops began to move in divisions from Astorga, and on the 11th of January 1809 the whole reached Corunna. The transports were unfortunately detained by adverse winds; and did not get round till two days after his arrival at that place. In this situation he was obliged on the 15th to risk an engagement under the walls of the town against very superior numbers; the French amounting to thirty thousand, while the English actually present did not exceed fourteen. The enemy, however, was successfully checked on all sides, and, being charged at the point of the bayonet, instantly fled. Unfortunately the brave Moore was killed by a cannon-ball; and Sir David Baird being wounded, the command of the army devolved upon General Sir John Hope. After the action, the embarkation commenced, and all the troops were got on board without further loss. The artillery was also shipped; but most of the horses were slaughtered, and a great part of the baggage was left behind. In this manner, with a mixed feeling of victory and defeat, terminated the second campaign in Portugal.

12. On the 21st of May 1809, Bonaparte published at Rome a proclamation, in which he endeavoured to justify his conduct in depriving the pope of his dominions, and uniting the papal territory to the kingdom of Italy; as also for commanding all cardinals, prelates, and other officers of the court, to depart from the city. In November, a proposition of a pacific nature

was made by the governments of Russia and France to the English cabinet, who, upon fully ascertaining the intentions of Napoleon towards Spain, rejected the offer. A declaration was afterwards issued by his Britannic majesty, stating the reasons which induced him to decline it.

EXERCISES.

1. For what reason did the American congress lay an embargo on their own vessels, and interdict British commerce? Who was sent to accommodate the difference with America?

2. What demand did ministry make of the Crown-Prince of Denmark? What happened in consequence of the Danish government's refusal to deliver up their fleet? When did Copenhagen capitulate to Lord Cathcart? What ships, &c. were delivered to the British?

3. What despatches were received from General Whitelocke?

4. In what manner did Portugal act in consequence of the order of Bonaparte? What became of the royal family and the country?

5. Who declared war against Britain? What orders did the privy-council issue? What subjects engaged the attention of parliament?

6. To whom did the island of Madeira surrender? Who concluded an alliance with Britain? When did Louis XVIII. arrive in England? What military officer was tried at this time? What was his sentence?

7. What events happened at Madrid about this time? What change took place in the Spanish government? How did the Spaniards endeavour to maintain their independence?

8. What assistance did the British government afford to the Spaniards? What success attended their arms? What distinguished bravery did the citizens of Saragossa exhibit?

9. What defeat did the Spaniards sustain? What became of Joseph Bonaparte?

10. When did the British forces land in Portugal? What transactions happened after their arrival? What convention took place at Cintra? How did the Spanish junta act?

11. Against whom did the French direct their whole force? What took place at Corunna between the French and British armies?

12. What territory did Bonaparte annex to Italy? Why were offers of peace rejected by his Britannic majesty?

SECTION VIII.

1. PARLIAMENT was opened on the 21st of January 1809, when interesting discussions took place upon the following subjects: the British army in Spain; charges against the Duke of York; the state of the nation; the late negotiation; convention of Cintra; the local militia; and abuses in the sale of appointments. On the 21st of June both houses were prorogued till the 10th of August.

2. The French having again taken possession of Portugal, Sir Arthur Wellesley, on the 22d of April, arrived at Lisbon, to assume the command of an army of thirty thousand men, with which the British ministry had determined to assist the patriots. He immediately attacked and drove the invaders from Oporto, and pursued them into the interior, where he was joined by the Spaniards under General Cuesta. The enemy, having received large re-enforcements, resumed offensive operations,

but in two very severe actions they were repulsed with great slaughter. From the utter impossibility, however, of obtaining provisions, Sir Arthur was obliged to retire upon the frontiers of Portugal.

3. The British government being desirous to destroy a large fleet lying at Flushing, and secure some naval station that would command the Scheldt, despatched thither, in the latter end of July, a large military force, amounting to nearly forty thousand men, commanded by Lord Chatham, under a convoy of thirty ships of the line and twenty-six frigates. Our troops accordingly landed in Zealand, and after a brave resistance by the garrisons, took possession of Middleburg and Flushing. In the meantime, however, the French fleet removed to Antwerp, and escaped. The whole coast being now alarmed, and large bodies of soldiers marching down from the interior, it was deemed imprudent to attempt any thing farther. The expedition accordingly returned to England, leaving fourteen thousand men in Flushing; but as the season proved very sickly, orders were given to evacuate the place. The basin and works were accordingly destroyed, upon which the garrison embarked for their own country.

4. On the 21st of February, Lord Cochrane burnt four large ships of war in Basque roads. Shortly after Admiral Martin destroyed a French convoy, consisting of three ships of the line, three frigates, and twenty sail of merchantmen, in the Mediterranean.—On the 17th of May, Bonaparte issued a decree, declaring the papal states united to the French empire, and Rome an imperial and free city. In consequence of this declaration, the pope made a formal protest, and afterwards, with great solemnity, excommunicated Napoleon.

5. On the 25th of October, George III. entered the fiftieth year of his reign,—an event which was celebrated by all ranks of people in a manner due to a venerable monarch, and worthy of a loyal and enlightened nation. Parliament had met on the 23d of the same month, when an inquiry took place into the policy and conduct of the expedition to the Scheldt. Sir Francis Burdett having published a libel against the house of commons, was committed to the Tower. This measure occasioned tumults in London, which were not quelled without bloodshed. On the 18th of May 1810, Mr Grattan brought forward a new motion for the emancipation of the Irish catholics, which, after a long debate, was negatived by a large majority. This period of the war was distinguished by numerous conquests both in the East and West Indies; among which were the islands of Guadaloupe, Amboyna, Bourbon, Banda, and the Isle of France.

6. The Spanish campaign in 1810 commenced with the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, which, after a brave resistance, was compelled, together with the fortress of Almeida, to surrender to the French. Shortly after, Massena attacked Wellington at Busaco; but was repulsed with the loss of ten thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

7. When parliament assembled on the 1st of November, ministers were obliged to announce very melancholy intelligence respecting the state of the king's health. An adjournment consequently took place; after which his royal highness the Prince of Wales was appointed regent, under certain restrictions.—The English orders in council had in 1807 put an end to all neutral commerce, except by license from this country. By way of retaliation, Bonaparte issued his Berlin and Milan decrees, declaring the British islands in a state of blockade, and prohibiting all other nations from carrying on any mercantile transactions with them, under pain of having their ships seized and their cargoes confiscated. Against these measures America protested, and passed an act of non-intercourse extending to both nations.

8. The campaign of 1811 was distinguished by a brilliant engagement at Barrosa, in which Sir Thomas Graham, with an inferior force, overcame Marshal Victor, who lost three thousand men. The thanks of both houses were given to the general for his important victory. On the 10th of March, the garrison of Badajoz basely surrendered to the French army. But shortly after, Massena began to retreat; and, as the allied army followed him, many sharp contests took place, in which he sustained very considerable loss. Having, however, received re-enforcements, he attacked the allies at Fuentes d'Honore; whence, after a desperate conflict, he was compelled to retire, leaving on the field seven thousand men. In the south of Portugal, the army of General Beresford was equally successful. Marshal Soult having attacked him at Albuera, a well-contested battle ensued, when the assailants were driven back.—But in several parts of Spain the patriots were less fortunate; Tortosa, Murviedro, and Tarragona, with their strong garrisons, being compelled to surrender, after having defended themselves with the greatest bravery. In the north of Portugal, however, General Hill surprised and routed Girard's division, consisting of two thousand five hundred infantry, and six hundred cavalry, which was the last event of importance during this campaign.

9. The prince regent being sworn into his office on the 6th of February, confided the affairs of government to the same ministers that had been appointed by his royal father.—Shortly

after, the parliament met, when the conduct of the Irish catholics was one of the principal subjects which occupied their attention. They also took into consideration the state of commercial credit, and the subsidy to Portugal.—This year was distinguished by the fall of Java,—the last of the Dutch colonies in the East,—which, after a brave resistance, surrendered to Sir Samuel Auchmuty.

10. The British navy, during this season, sustained considerable damage from the tempests which raged in the north seas.—On the 24th of December, the *St George* of ninety-eight guns, Admiral Reynolds, and the *Defence* of seventy-four guns, Captain Atkins, were driven ashore on the coast of Jutland, and the whole of the crews, amounting to fourteen hundred men, were lost. On the same day the *Hero* of seventy-four guns was stranded on a sand-bank off the Texel, and all hands perished.—The differences which had so long subsisted between this country and America now rose to a still greater height, in consequence of an engagement which took place between the United States frigate *President*, commanded by Captain Rogers, and his majesty's vessel *Little Belt*, commanded by Captain Bingham.

11. On the 7th of January 1812, parliament was opened by a speech from the prince regent. The state of Ireland again occupied their attention, and after a long debate, in which the usual arguments for Catholic emancipation were eloquently urged, the motion was rejected in both houses by large majorities.—The campaign of 1812 was opened by an event highly disastrous to the cause of the allies. The Spanish army under Blake, consisting of sixteen thousand infantry, and eighteen hundred cavalry, having thrown themselves into Valencia, were immediately besieged by Marshal Suchet, and after a desperate resistance, compelled to surrender. In an attempt against Tarifa, however, the enemy completely failed.

12. On the 15th of January, Lord Wellington stormed Ciudad Rodrigo, in which were found great quantities of ammunition, and one hundred and fifty pieces of ordnance. His next enterprise was the taking of Badajoz, which he also carried by storm, not, however, without suffering a severe loss. He then advanced to cut off the communication between the armies of Soult and Marmont, who were advancing to relieve that town; and, after great generalship on both sides, succeeded in defeating the latter at Salamanca, with the loss of 15,000 men killed, wounded, and prisoners, eleven pieces of cannon, two eagles, and six standards. The consequences of this victory, gained on the 22d July, were the abandonment of Madrid by Joseph Bonaparte, and its occupation by the conqueror, who was

declared governor-general of Spain. Thence his lordship marched to Burgos, which he invested; but the French having obtained a great additional force, obliged him to raise the siege, and again retreat to the frontiers of Portugal.

EXERCISES.

1. What subjects were discussed in parliament this session?
2. From what town did Sir Arthur Wellesley drive the French? Whither was he obliged to retire?
3. What armament sailed for Zealand? Of what towns did it take possession? What became of the French fleet? What was the result of the expedition?
4. What ships of the enemy did Lord Cochrane and Admiral Martin destroy? How did the pope treat Bonaparte?
5. What joyful event was celebrated in Britain? To what place was Sir Francis Burdett committed? What colonial conquests were made this year?
6. What town in Spain surrendered to the French? What loss did the French sustain at Busaco?
7. Who was appointed regent of Great Britain? What was the policy of the French and American governments towards this country?
8. What took place at Barrosa, in Spain? What were the operations of the belligerents in that country? What victory did General Hill obtain?
9. By whom was the island of Java taken this year?
10. What ships were lost in the North Sea? What British and American frigates engaged at this time?
11. What occupied the attention of Parliament during this session? To whom did General Blake surrender?
12. What towns were stormed by Wellington? What important battle did he gain? What consequences resulted from the defeat of Marmont?

SECTION IX.

1. WHILE these transactions were going forward in Spain, Bonaparte declared war against Russia, and advanced into that country with a well-appointed army, consisting of four hundred thousand men. After several desperate engagements at Vitebsk, Smolensk, and Borodino, his forces were greatly reduced not only by losses in the field, but also by the incursions of the Cossacks who continually harassed his march, and by disease, fatigue, and want of provisions. Napoleon, however, disregarding the remonstrances of his best officers, marched upon Moscow, to which he looked forward as a place of refuge against the severity of a northern winter, and as containing those means of refreshment which his army so much wanted. How great then must have been his mortification and disappointment, when he found that the patriotic governor, and the no less patriotic inhabitants, had nobly resolved to sacrifice their venerated city, their homes, and their property, rather than that he should derive any advantage from them!

2. We proceed to give a few details of the distressing scenes which occurred during the Russian campaign, in order to render odious that fatal ambition which forced a civilized

people to become barbarians in war.—As soon as the populace were informed of the governor's resolution to burn the town they rushed through the principal streets, exclaiming, that it was better to perish than outlive their country and their religion! Some ran to their homes to save their families from the impending danger; others fled into the woods, where they experienced the horrors of famine; some solemnly devoted themselves for the defence of their native city, or joined the troops which were commencing their retreat. The rest of the population, seizing their arms, either took refuge in the Kremlin, or immediately set fire to the Exchange, which contained immense riches, and where the enemy might have found means of subsistence during the whole winter.—Meanwhile the French army approached, and, on their entry into Moscow, were struck with terror at the awful solitude which every where prevailed, and became apprehensive for their own safety. As they advanced along its beautiful streets, they beheld the magnificent Exchange, full of the most valuable productions of Europe and Asia, a prey to the flames. All the palaces and warehouses not yet consumed were instantly pillaged. The spectacle was terrible and afflicting. Part of the population had concealed themselves in cellars, or secret recesses of their own homes.—As the fire spread they rushed in despair from their various asylums, and, hastily snatching up their most precious effects, fled from the flames. Others of greater sensibility saved only their parents, or their infants, who were closely clasped in their arms. They were followed by their other children, running as their little strength would permit. The old people, borne down by grief more than by age, had not sufficient power to accompany their families, and expired near the houses in which they were born. The streets, the public places, and particularly the churches, were all filled with these unhappy people. The fire soon reached the finest parts of the city. Those palaces, so long admired for the beauty of their architecture and the elegance of their furniture, were enveloped in the flames. Their magnificent fronts, ornamented with bas-reliefs and statues, fell with a dreadful crash on the fragments of the pillars which had supported them. The churches, though covered with iron and lead, were likewise destroyed, and with them those beautiful steeples which were lately seen resplendent with gold and silver.

3. When permission was given to pillage this immense city, the utmost confusion every where prevailed. Soldiers, sutlers, and galley-slaves eagerly ran through the streets, penetrating into the deserted palaces, and carrying away every

thing which could gratify their avarice. Some covered themselves with stuffs richly wrought with gold and silk; some were enveloped in beautiful and costly furs; while others dressed themselves in women's and children's pelisses; and even the slaves concealed their rags under the most splendid habits of the court. The rest crowded into the cellars, and, forcing open the doors, drank to excess the most luscious wines, and thence carried off an immense booty. This horrid pillage was not confined to the deserted houses alone, but extended also to those which were inhabited; and soon the eagerness and rage of the plunderers caused devastations which almost equalled those occasioned by the conflagration. Every asylum was violated by the licentious troops. No retreat was safe; and no place sufficiently sacred to afford protection against their rapacity.—At length the whole city became one immense flame; the different streets could no longer be distinguished, and the places on which the houses had stood were marked only by confused piles of stones, calcined and black.—The wind, blowing with violence, howled mournfully, and overwhelmed the French troops with ashes, with burning fragments, and even with iron plates, which covered the palaces. Long rows of carriages were perceived through the smoke, loaded with booty. Being too heavy for the exhausted cattle to draw them along, they were obliged to halt at every step, when the drivers, terrified by the surrounding flames, endeavoured to push forward with dreadful outcries. The soldiers were diligently employed in forcing open every door. They seemed to fear lest they should leave one house untouched; and, as if the booty last acquired were preferable to what they had already obtained, they abandoned their former prize to seize on every new object. The flames obstructing the passage of the principal streets often obliged them to retrace their steps. Thus, wandering from place to place, they sought in vain to extricate themselves from a labyrinth of fire, and became the victims of their own rapacity.

4. Before the French army retired, the Duke of Treviso was ordered by Bonaparte to destroy every thing that the flames had spared. He accordingly blew up the Kremlin, a noble citadel in the midst of Moscow, together with the magnificent buildings which it contained. Thus did this celebrated city, founded by the Tartars, enriched with every gift of fortune, and situated in the centre of the Russian empire, experience from the passions of a daring adventurer the most lamentable of human vicissitudes! As the invaders were about to depart, they witnessed a spectacle at once affecting and terrible,—a crowd of the miserable inhabitants drawing, upon some

mean vehicles, all that they had been able to save from the conflagration! The soldiers having robbed them of their horses, the men and women were slowly and painfully dragging along their little carts, some of which contained an infirm mother, others a paralytic old man, and others the miserable wrecks of half-consumed furniture! Children, half-naked, followed these interesting groups; sorrow, to which their age is commonly a stranger, was impressed on their features; and, when the soldiers approached them, they ran crying into the arms of their mothers. Alas! without shelter and without food, these unfortunate beings were compelled to wander in the fields and woods!

5. Of the hopeless situation of Bonaparte and his army at this time it is scarcely possible to form an idea. Notwithstanding the ruin with which he was now threatened, he lingered in the vicinity of Moscow, in the vain hope that the Emperor Alexander would agree to peace. Disappointed in this expectation, his proud spirit at length gave way, and on the 19th of October he began his retreat. No words can paint the misery and suffering to which the French were now exposed, during a march of two hundred and sixty leagues through an enemy's country. Scarcely had they, at the end of a weary day, lain down on the cold ground to obtain a little rest, when the Cossacks rushed into their camp, and before the men could prepare themselves for defence, killed many of them on the spot, threw the rest into confusion, and carried off their stores and artillery. Enraged at such proceedings, Bonaparte gave orders to burn every place through which they passed. These barbarous commands not only ruined the miserable inhabitants of the various towns and villages, but also drove them to seek revenge, and deprived the rearguard of his own army of all shelter from the inclemency of the weather. Provisions beginning to fail, they were obliged to feed upon their slaughtered horses; and three thousand Russian prisoners, who had been brought from Moscow, were at night driven into a narrow fold like so many beasts. Without fire, and perishing with cold, they lay on the bare ice; and to assuage the hunger which tortured them, eagerly devoured the horse-flesh, which was occasionally distributed among them with a sparing hand. For want of time and means to dress it, they were obliged to eat it raw and bloody as it was cut from the carcasses of the animals.

EXERCISES.

1. Against what country did Bonaparte declare war and advance with an immense army? In what engagements was his army reduced? What desperate resolution did the governor of Moscow adopt on learning Bonaparte's approach?

2. What scene did Moscow present on the entry of the French ?

3. What ensued when the city was given up to pillage ? What was the deplorable situation of the inhabitants ?

4. By whom was the Kremlin destroyed ? What spectacle was witnessed when the French left Moscow ?

5. What hope induced Bonaparte to delay his retreat ? To what sufferings were the French now exposed ? What orders did Bonaparte give during his retreat from Moscow ? In what manner were the Russian prisoners treated ?

SECTION X.

1. SUCH was the severity of the frost during the retreat of the French, that in the first week the horses perished by thousands ; and so destitute were they of provisions that the mortality of these animals was now regarded as a fortunate circumstance, as, without this resource, the soldiers must have experienced the horrors of famine. In order to gain a few hours' march on the Cossacks, who incessantly attacked them, they continued their route by night, and groped their way in the dark. The road was entirely covered with the fragments of carriages and artillery. Men and horses, worn out with fatigue, could scarcely drag themselves along, and, suffering yet more from the cold than from hunger, they abandoned their ranks to warm themselves by a fire hastily kindled ; but when they would rise to depart, their frost-bitten limbs refused their office, a partial insensibility crept over them, and they chose rather to fall into the hands of the enemy than to make a feeble effort to continue their journey.

2. The hope that their sufferings would cease on their arrival at Smolensk had hitherto enabled the soldiers to bear them with calmness and resignation ; but when only twenty leagues distant from that city they were overtaken by a storm, in which, vainly struggling with the snow and wind, they could no longer distinguish the road, and, falling into the ditches which bordered it, there found a grave. Others pressed on towards the end of their journey, scarcely able to drag themselves along. They were badly mounted, badly clothed, with nothing to eat, nothing to drink, shivering with the cold, and groaning with pain. Becoming selfish through despair, they afforded neither succour, nor even one glance of pity to those who, exhausted by fatigue and disease, expired around them. Some of them were heard faintly bidding a last adieu to their friends and comrades. Others, as they drew their last breath, pronounced the names of their mothers, their wives, and their native country, which they were never more to see. The rigour of the frost soon seized on their benumbed limbs, and penetrated through their whole frame. Stretched on the

road, they could only be distinguished by the heaps of snow that covered them, and which, at almost every step, formed little nudulations, like so many graves. At the same time vast flights of ravens, abandoning the plain to take refuge in the neighbouring forest, croaked mournfully as they passed over their heads; and troops of dogs, which had followed them from Moscow, and lived solely on their mangled remains, howled around them, as if they would hasten the period when they were to become their prey! From that day the army lost its courage. The soldier no longer obeyed his officer. The officer separated himself from his general. The disbanded regiments marched in disorder. Searching for food, they spread themselves over the plain, burning and pillaging whatever fell in their way; and they were in their turn assailed by a population eager to revenge the horrors of which they had been the victims.

3. After suffering incredible hardships, the army at length reached Smolensk, the towers of which, seen at a distance, flattered them with the sweetest illusions; but what was their consternation when they learned that the provisions there were all consumed! Their senses were for a moment suspended; they would not believe the fact; but their eyes soon gave them sad confirmation of the truth, when they saw the garrison eagerly rushing out, and immediately devouring the horses which every moment dropped, exhausted with fatigue and hunger. At this place the emperor received every day disastrous news of his armies. At a loss how to repair so many disgraces, he for the first time held a grand council, at which all the generals of division and marshals of the empire attended. As soon as this conference was ended, he burned part of his equipage, appointed the viceroy to take the command, and immediately departed in his carriage.

4. On leaving Smolensk, they were obliged to abandon an immense quantity of artillery, once the trophies of their victories. For the distance of three leagues, the road was entirely covered with cannon and ammunition-waggon, which they had scarcely time to spike or blow up. Whole teams of cattle, sinking under their labours, fell together. The carcasses of the horses covered and blocked up the way. All the defiles, which the carriages could no longer pass, were filled with helmets, muskets, and breastplates. Trunks broken open, portmantaus torn to pieces, and garments of every kind, were scattered over the valley. At every little distance were seen groups of dead soldiers, who, having attempted to light a fire, had perished before they could accomplish their object, and were stretched amidst the frozen branches which they had vainly

endeavoured to kindle; and so numerous were the bodies, that they would have obstructed the road, had not the soldiers been often employed in throwing them into the ditches and ruts. These horrors, far from exciting their sensibility, only hardened their hearts. Their cruelty, which could no more be exercised on the enemy, was extended to their companions. The best friends no longer recognised each other. Whoever discovered the least sickness, if he had not good horses and faithful servants, was sure never to see his country again. Every one preferred saving the plunder of Moscow to the preservation of the life of his comrade. On every side were heard the groans of the dying, and the lamentable cries of those who were abandoned. But all were deaf to their supplications; or, if any one approached those who were on the point of expiring, it was to plunder not to assist them; it was to search whether they had any remains of food, and not to afford them relief.

5. When they arrived at the banks of the river Beresina, the darkness of the night was horrible, and the wind tremendous, blowing a thick shower of ice and snow in their faces. To complete their misfortunes, no wood was to be got. Although two bridges had been constructed, one for the carriages, the other for the foot-soldiers, yet the crowd was so great, and the approaches were so dangerous, that the way was completely obstructed, and it was absolutely impossible to move. Early in the morning, the bridge for the carriages and horses broke down; the baggage and artillery then advanced towards the other bridge and attempted to force a passage. Now began a frightful contention between the foot-soldiers and the horsemen. Many perished by the hands of their comrades; a great number were suffocated at the head of the bridge; and the dead bodies of men and horses so choked up every avenue, that it was necessary to climb over the mountains of carcasses to arrive at the river.

6. In the meantime, the Russians under Wittgenstein approached, and pressed the rearguard. Already the roar of their cannon was heard, and the sound dismayed every heart. An obstinate engagement took place, and the valour of the French, now become desperate, long rendered the victory undecided; but at length courage was forced to yield to numbers, and they were compelled to abandon their position. In the heat of the engagement, many balls flew over the miserable crowd, which was yet pressing across the bridge. At length the Russians advanced in a mass, and drove before them the troops of General Girard, which till then had held them in check. At the sight of the enemy, those who had not already

passed rushed precipitately towards the bridge. The artillery, the baggage-waggons, the cavalry, and the foot-soldiers, all pressed on, contending who should cross first. The strongest threw into the river those who were weaker, and unfeelingly trampled under foot all the sick whom they found in their way. Many hundreds were crushed to death by the wheels of the cannon. Others, hoping to save themselves by swimming, were frozen in the middle of the stream, or perished by placing themselves on pieces of ice, which sank to the bottom. Thousands of victims, driven to despair, threw themselves headlong into the Beresina, and were lost in its waters. At length the bridge was set on fire, to prevent the enemy from following. The uproar ceased, and a mournful silence succeeded.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the effect of the extreme cold on the horses of the French army? What sufferings did the soldiers experience?

2. When did the French hope that their sufferings would cease? To what hardships and privations were they still exposed? Did the army still retain its courage?

3. What town did they at length reach? In what condition did they find matters there? Who attended the council at Smolensk? What was the issue of it?

4. After leaving that town, what new disasters befell the French? What effect did these miseries produce on the minds of the soldiers?

5. What occasioned great contention at the river Beresina? What shocking scene was here presented?

6. Who commanded the Russian advanced guard? What became of Girard's troops?

SECTION XI.

1. SETTING out on the morrow for Zembin, the soldiers commiserated the fate of the numerous friends who were no longer with them. They eagerly embraced those who had returned, whom they had feared they should never again have beheld, and congratulated each other on surviving a day more terrible than the bloodiest battle. Some mutually recounted the dangers they had run, and the difficulties with which they had struggled to escape with life; whilst those who were silent deeply mused on the disasters which they had passed, and rendered their secret thanks to Providence for a preservation almost miraculous.

2. The fatal passage of the Beresina reduced the French to the lowest ebb. How mortifying to the proud mind of Bonaparte to lose the provinces which he occupied, with more rapidity than he had invaded them; to have the melancholy cypress, instead of the laurels of victory; to see cities smoking with recent slaughter, instead of the incense of applause; and,

finally, to witness as the sole companions of his triumph forty thousand disarmed soldiers, without linen and without stockings, whose shoes were manufactured from their worn-out hats, and whose shoulders were covered with pieces of sacking and the skins of horses newly flayed! These were the deplorable remains of four hundred thousand brave warriors, who, but for the ambition of a single man, would have been the pride of their country!—The cold becoming now more severe, increased the disorder of their march, and produced incalculable losses. As soon as Napoleon arrived at Smorgoni, and had ascertained that the road was safe as far as the Niemen, terrified at so many disasters, and still more by the fear of losing his authority in France, he resolved to abandon these miserable relics of his army; and calling together the chiefs, informed them of his design, and immediately set off in his carriage for Paris, accompanied by Generals Lefevre, Lobau, Duroc, and Caulaincourt.

3. The King of Naples now took the command of the army; who, informed of their chief's departure, loaded him with execrations, whilst the greater part of the officers, no longer awed by his presence, followed his example, and shamefully abandoned the remains of their regiments. Those brave soldiers, who were intrusted with the immediate charge of the eagles, were now reduced to the painful necessity of hiding them in their knapsacks. Many of them, feeling that they were expiring, dug up the ground with feeble hand, to save from the Russians those ensigns of their former glory.—The road which they followed offered to the view at every step many brave officers covered with rags, supported by branches of pine, and their hair and beards stiffened by the ice, crawling slowly along. Their situation rapidly became more dreadful. Whenever a soldier, overcome with fatigue, chanced to fall, his next neighbour rushed eagerly upon him, and, before he was dead, robbed him of all that he possessed, and even his clothes.

4. On their arrival at Ochmiani on the 8th of December, the weather was so severe (twenty-two degrees below the freezing point) that the soldiers burnt whole houses to avoid being frozen. Around the fires were seen the half-consumed bodies of many unfortunate men who, having advanced too near, in order to warm themselves, and being too weak to recede, had become a prey to the flames. Some miserable beings, blackened with smoke, and besmeared with the blood of the horses which they had devoured, wandered like ghosts around the burning houses. They gazed on the dead bodies of their companions, and, too feeble to support themselves, fell down and died like them. The route was covered with soldiers who no

longer retained the human form, and whom the enemy disdained to make prisoners. Some had lost their hearing, others their speech, and many were seen absolutely delirious. To warm their frozen feet, they plunged them naked into the middle of the fire. Some with a hideous laugh threw themselves into the flames, and, uttering the most piercing cries, perished in horrible convulsions.

5. Such was their dreadful situation when they arrived at Wilna, where they hoped not only to find provisions, but to remain some days, and enjoy the repose which they so much needed; but they had scarcely entered the suburbs, when the Cossacks, who had taken possession of the heights which commanded the city, fired upon them. Being unable to resist the attacks of the enemy, they evacuated the town in the midst of the night, leaving the streets covered with soldiers intoxicated, asleep, or dead. The courts, the galleries, the stairs of the various buildings, were filled with them, and not one would march, or even rise, to obey the orders of the officers who called them. In two hours after they had resumed their march, they arrived at the foot of a mountain, inaccessible on account of its steepness and the ice with which it was covered. Their grief at this misfortune was soon changed into despair, when they heard that the Cossacks, having passed Wilna, had scattered the rearguard and were rapidly advancing.—The military chest, which contained five millions of crowns, was now divided amongst the soldiers, and it was truly curious to see those who were dying with hunger, laden with more riches than they could possibly carry. The coarsest food was now preferred to silver. Trunks and portmanteaus, broken open and robbed, were seen in every direction. The most superb court-dresses and the richest furs were worn by those whose countenances were most disgusting. Returning from the pillage, many of them offered sixty francs for a loaf, and some gave ten crowns for a glass of brandy. Every one spoke familiarly of ingots and jewels. Every soldier was laden with silver, but none with a musket. No wonder then that the Cossacks inspired such terror.

6. Exhausted by long and harassing marches, and dying with fatigue, they at length arrived at Kowno, where the wrecks of the different corps were reunited. They encamped as usual in the streets. The magazines, which were amply stored, were now given up to pillage. Immediately clothes, corn, and rum, were every where seen in abundance. The soldiers drank to excess, and more than two thousand of them, completely intoxicated, slept upon the snow, where, benumbed with cold, they all perished. On the morning of the 13th of

December, out of four hundred thousand warriors, who had crossed the Niemen, at the opening of the campaign, scarcely twenty thousand men repassed it. Having arrived at the opposite bank, like ghosts, they fearfully looked behind them, and beheld with horror the frightful country in which they had suffered so much. Scarcely had they entered Poland, when they dispersed in different roads, and wandered like simple travellers, followed by the Cossacks, who spread their squadrons over the plains, and massacred or captured many of those who had now considered themselves in safety. On the 17th of December, the miserable remains arrived at Königsberg, where they were at last sheltered from the cold, and obtained every necessary supply. Such was the end of this dreadful campaign, in which the French lost nearly four hundred thousand men,—of whom forty generals, thirteen hundred officers, and one hundred and sixty-eight thousand privates, were taken prisoners, together with eleven hundred and thirty-one pieces of cannon. If we look into the annals of antiquity, we shall find that never, since the time of Cambyses, did so numerous a body of men experience such dreadful reverses. May monarchs and nations, in all succeeding ages, profit by the awful warning which Providence has thus given of the danger of indulging a mad ambition!

7. Soon after these disasters, the Prussians threw off the yoke, and their army, amounting to fifty thousand, went over to the Russians. Notwithstanding this defection, and the still more important loss of his best soldiers, Bonaparte resolved to hazard another campaign. Exerting for this purpose his wonted vigour, and calling into activity all his resources, he speedily raised a force of three hundred and fifty thousand men, with which he advanced to the plains of Lutzen, where, on the 2d of May 1813, a desperate battle took place, after which he fixed his head-quarters at Dresden. Having refreshed his troops, he attacked the allies at Bautzen, whence, after a hard fight, he compelled them to retreat, and gained possession of the capital of Silesia. Hitherto Napoleon had been successful; but as his victories had been dearly purchased, he accepted the mediation of the Emperor of Austria. A cessation of hostilities accordingly took place, and it was agreed that a congress should be held at Prague. But this measure produced no pacific result; and the Austrian monarch, from being a mediator, became an enemy to Bonaparte, as soon as he saw that he was not seriously disposed for peace. The Crown Prince of Sweden having also joined the allies, they now found themselves greatly increased in numbers.

8. The confederates accordingly, in their turn, attacked the

French near Dresden, and drove them into the town. Blucher likewise obtained a victory over Macdonald, and recovered Silesia; and Bernadotte afterwards attacked a corps under Marshal Ney, whom he defeated, with the loss of ten thousand men and eighty pieces of cannon. The whole of the combined force now advanced against Napoleon, who was compelled to leave the Saxon capital, in company with the king, and take up a position near Leipsic. Here fifty-five thousand Bavarian troops left him, and joined the Austrians. Several smart actions now took place, in all of which he was worsted; and on the morning of the 18th of October, the allied army made a grand attack on his position, of which the result was, that he lost in killed, wounded, and prisoners, forty thousand men, and sixty-five pieces of artillery, besides seventeen German battalions who deserted to the conquerors. The town was taken by assault next day, together with his rear-guard of thirty thousand men, to which were added the sick and wounded, amounting to nearly twenty-two thousand, and also his magazines, artillery, and stores.

EXERCISES.

1. To what place did the French next advance? What were their feelings at this time?
2. What number of the French army now remained? How did Bonaparte act on his arrival at Smorgoni?
3. Who took the command of the French army? What was their situation in the progress of their march?
4. What took place on their arrival at Ochmiani? What was now the wretched condition of the remains of the French army?
5. Who attacked the French at Wilna? What was the consequence? What became of the military chest? To what straits was the army now reduced?
6. What place did the French now reach? What was their condition at that place? What number of men repassed the Niemen? Where at last did they obtain every supply? What was the loss of the French army during the Russian campaign?
7. Who joined the Russians? What exertions did Bonaparte afterwards make? What princes joined the allies?
8. What victories did the allies obtain? What loss did the French sustain at Leipsic?

SECTION XII.

1. AFTER this defeat, Bonaparte fixed his head-quarters at Frankfort, from which place he himself returned to Paris. He again freely acknowledged his disasters, but appealed to the nation for support, and issued a decree ordering a fresh levy of three hundred thousand conscripts. The natural effect of his reverses, however, now began to appear. A revolution broke out in Holland, the inhabitants of which sent a deputation to London, inviting the return of the Prince of Orange, who, on the 25th of November, set sail for that

country, accompanied by a considerable British force, and was received by all ranks of his subjects with the greatest joy. The French immediately evacuated Breda and Williamstadt, leaving all their military stores. Sir Thomas Graham, who had under his command a considerable body of troops, shortly after defeated the enemy near Antwerp, and took Bois-le-Duc; but in an attempt to storm Bergen-op-Zoom he was repulsed with some loss.

2. War having unhappily broken out between Britain and the United States, the Java frigate of forty-six guns, Captain Lambert, was taken by the American frigate Constitution, after a desperate action, in which the former lost sixty killed and a hundred wounded. To compensate this loss, the Chesapeake, of fifty guns, was soon afterwards taken by the Shannon, of thirty-eight, Captain Broke; also the Essex of fifty guns, by the British frigate Phœbe; and the President, by the Endymion, Captain Hope. In Canada, likewise, General Vincent defeated their army, inflicting upon them the loss of two generals and a thousand prisoners. In another action, at Forty-mile Creek, they lost thirteen hundred men. The British now advanced, and took Fort Oswego; they were, however, baffled in an effort to reduce Fort Erie, when nine hundred men were killed or wounded.

3. We must now return to the affairs of the Peninsula. On the 21st of June, Lord Wellington attacked the French under Marshal Jourdan at Vittoria, and gained a most signal victory. All their baggage and artillery fell into the hands of the conquerors. In the meantime, Sir John Murray was employed in besieging Tarragona; but, on the approach of Marshal Suchet with a strong army, he raised the siege, and re-embarked with so much precipitation as to give rise to much censure. Bonaparte, still desirous to recover Spain, appointed Marshal Soult commander-in-chief, who, with an army of forty thousand men, checked the advance of the British; though shortly after they again became the assailants, and forced the enemy to abandon their strongest positions. The important fortresses of Pampeluna and St Sebastian still held out. On the 31st of July, the latter place surrendered to Sir Thomas Graham, notwithstanding a brave defence on the part of the garrison and several attempts made by Soult to relieve it. Pampeluna fell soon afterwards.

4. On the 7th of October, Wellington entered France, and drove the enemy to the neighbourhood of Bayonne. He next crossed the Adour, and attacked Soult at Orthes, where after a desperate conflict he compelled him to retreat. The people in the south of France received our army as friends, treat-

ing them with the greatest kindness; and, as soon as the citizens of Bordeaux heard of their approach, they determined to declare for the Bourbons. A proclamation to this effect was issued by the mayor; deputies were sent to Louis XVIII.; and the British were asked to occupy the town. This invitation their commander immediately accepted, and sent a part of his army thither, under Marshal Beresford. Soult in the meantime had taken up a strong position near Toulouse. Here our troops attacked him on the 10th of April 1814, and, after a desperate resistance, compelling him to retreat, they entered the city in triumph.

5. At Frankfort, on the 1st of December 1813, the allied sovereigns, having published a declaration purporting that they only made war against the insatiable ambition of Bonaparte, immediately crossed the Rhine and invaded France. They had taken possession of several extensive provinces without opposition; when Napoleon, completely embarrassed, resolved to sue for peace. A congress was accordingly opened at Chatillon; but, after some discussion, a final rupture of the negotiation ensued. In the meantime he joined his army, when a desperate engagement took place with the Prussians under Blucher, who defeated him with the loss of four thousand prisoners and forty pieces of cannon. The allies now followed the beaten foe with rapidity, whilst the inhabitants of the country beheld the advance of the foreigners with perfect indifference; but the Prussian commander, having separated too far from the other corps, was furiously assailed by the enemy, and with difficulty secured his retreat.

6. While Bonaparte was thus employed, the combined army advanced, took the town of Sens, and joined the Bavarians under General Wrede. They now drove the French, commanded by Victor and Oudinot, before them; whilst the emperor, returning quickly from the pursuit of the Prussians, made four desperate attacks upon Schwartzenberg, in each of which he was repulsed with great slaughter. Blucher no sooner found his adversary gone than he pressed on to Paris. To him therefore Napoleon again directed his attention, and bore down upon him with all his forces at Laon; where, after a severe contest, he was again worsted, and forced to retreat towards Rheims, with the loss of seventy pieces of cannon and an immense number of prisoners. Perceiving from the advance of the allies that his fate could not be much longer protracted, he had recourse to a desperate expedient. He threw himself into the rear of his enemies, and threatened to cut off their communication with Germany; conceiving that Paris was perfectly safe, as he had

intrusted the defence of it to General Marmont. In this expectation, however, he was completely disappointed. The invaders, disregarding his manœuvre, resolved to strike a decisive blow, and advanced to the metropolis with their whole force, which exceeded two hundred thousand men. On learning their design, the French ruler hastened back to preserve the capital, though, during his march, he was constantly harassed by Winzingerode, at the head of ten thousand cavalry and forty pieces of cannon.

7. In the meantime, the confederates having advanced to Paris, immediately attacked the defences, consisting of several redoubts, and mounting one hundred and fifty large guns. After an obstinate resistance, the heights of Belleville were carried, upon which Marmont solicited an armistice; and the next day, the 31st of March 1814, the allies entered the city in triumph, amidst the acclamations of the populace, by whom they were received as protectors and deliverers. The French senate, which assembled at the desire of the Emperor Alexander, passed a decree deposing Bonaparte; and a provisional government was established, who published an address to the army, informing them that they no longer owed allegiance to their late chief. A new constitution was adopted, agreeably to which Louis XVIII. was chosen sovereign; a senate of two hundred members and a legislative body were appointed; the independence of the judges was guaranteed; freedom of worship and conscience was secured; and the liberty of the press fully confirmed.

8. As soon as the news of this revolution reached England, the most lively demonstrations of joy were manifested in all parts of the united kingdom. The Marquis of Wellington was created a duke; an annuity of thirteen thousand pounds was voted to him for life; and shortly after, when he took his seat in the house of lords, he received the thanks of parliament for his gallant conduct. In May, the definitive treaty between Great Britain and France was signed at Paris, by which the islands of Malta, Mauritius, Tobago, and St Lucia, with the Cape of Good Hope, were ceded to this country. The Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, and a number of distinguished foreigners, came to London, where they were entertained by the court, the lord-mayor, and several of the nobility. After visiting all the public places in the metropolis, as well as the University of Oxford, and witnessing a grand naval review at Portsmouth, they embarked for the Continent. The King of France made his public entry into Paris on the 3d of May, where he was received by all ranks with the most lively acclamations.—In the course of the year, numerous petitions

were presented to parliament from all parts of the kingdom against the slave-trade. It affords us pleasure to add, that, in consequence of the representations of the British government, the allies agreed to abolish this inhuman traffic, which had so long been the disgrace of civilized Europe.

9. Before Marmont had agreed to give up Paris, he stipulated with the conquerors for the personal safety of Bonaparte, and that provision should be made for his future support. The ex-emperor now therefore solemnly relinquished the monarchy of France for himself and his heirs; and upon this renunciation the allied powers concluded a treaty, by which his titles were guaranteed for life, the sovereignty of Elba secured to him, with a garrison of four hundred men, and an annual revenue of two millions of francs. He was accordingly conveyed thither with as little delay as possible. Louis XVIII., as soon as it was practicable, formed a ministry, and endeavoured to support his power by gaining to his cause the marshals and generals who had served under Napoleon. But he had a greater difficulty to encounter in the pretensions of the emigrants, who had lost their estates at the revolution, and shared the depressed fortunes of his family. The chambers however met, and interesting debates took place on the liberty of the press and the property of the royalists, which occasioned considerable discontents in the nation.

10. In the meantime, Bonaparte was nearly forgotten, when, to the astonishment and dismay not only of the French king but of all Europe, he suddenly left Elba, and, on the 1st of March 1815, landed at Frejus! It soon appeared that most of the marshals were traitors to their new master, as addresses and proclamations were issued by them in favour of the late emperor; and as none marched to oppose him, his progress resembled a triumph rather than an invasion. Louis, finding that the army was decidedly against him, left Paris on the 19th, and on the day following his rival entered it. He immediately addressed a letter to the sovereigns of Europe, justifying his conduct, declaiming against the Bourbons, and declaring his anxiety to preserve peace.

11. A British army having landed in Virginia, under the command of General Ross, repulsed the Americans, and took the city of Washington, where all the public buildings were destroyed, together with two frigates. A great quantity of naval stores, two hundred pieces of cannon, and thirty thousand stand of arms, were also taken. Alexandria was next attacked, at which place twenty-one loaded vessels were seized. The success of our countrymen, however, received a check in an action with the American flotilla at Plattsburg.

On the 12th of September 1814, the enemy was defeated near Baltimore, though the victors had to bewail the death of their commander. Our troops afterwards re-embarked, and, in an attempt upon New Orleans, were repulsed with great loss. At length, on the 24th of December, peace was concluded between the two countries by their commissioners, at Ghent, which happily put an end to all hostilities.

12. Bonaparte soon found that his newly acquired power was likely to be shaken; for nearly the whole of the west, and many districts of the south of France, rose in favour of the Bourbons. The allies likewise issued a manifesto, declaring him an enemy and disturber of the public tranquillity; and also engaging not to lay down their arms till he should be completely deprived of his power. Scarcely was this declaration published, when two formidable armies marched to the frontiers under the Duke of Wellington and Prince Blucher. Napoleon, meanwhile, endeavoured to conciliate the affections of the people by drawing up an additional act to the constitution, for the free acceptance of which he ordered twenty thousand representatives of the people to assemble in the capital on the 1st of June 1815. Having opened the session of the chambers with an address, and fortified Paris, he proceeded to join his army in the Netherlands, consisting of a hundred and fifty thousand men, of which forty thousand were cavalry. Of these there were nine thousand cuirassiers, seven thousand of the new and nine thousand of the old guards, to whom he issued an order of the day, declaring, "that to every Frenchman who had a heart the moment was arrived to conquer or perish." On the 14th, he suddenly attacked the Prussians on the Sambre, and drove them back. Next day, he again attacked them at Ligny, when a most desperate and sanguinary combat took place, which continued long with doubtful success. But the French gradually overpowered their antagonists by superior numbers; while Bonaparte, favoured by the darkness of the night, ordered a division of his infantry to make a circuit round the village; and at the same time forcing a passage on the other side with some regiments of cuirassiers, he assailed the main body of the Prussian army in the rear, and finally compelled them to retreat.

13. On the 16th of June, Marshal Ney advanced towards Brussels with a corps of fifty thousand men; and, in spite of every exertion of the Belgian troops, he obtained possession of a strong position in a thick wood. The Duke of Wellington, on his arrival, ordered General Maitland, with the grenadier guards, to dislodge them. These brave men rushed

upon their invisible enemy, sustaining a most destructive fire with the most determined resolution. Every tree, every bush, but more especially a small rivulet, which ran through the wood, were made posts of determined and deadly defence by the French; but, after a conflict of three hours, they were obliged to withdraw. Meantime the battle was equally fierce on every other point. General Picton's brigade, comprehending the Royals, ninety-second, forty-second, and forty-fourth regiments, was stationed near the farm-house of Quatre-Bras, and being exposed to a heavy fire, lost many men. The enemy made a desperate charge of cavalry, which was resisted by each regiment separately throwing itself into a solid square. Again and again they renewed their fierce attacks, and night alone put an end to the combat. The gallant Duke of Brunswick, Colonel Cameron, and many valuable officers, fell; and several of our regiments were considerably weakened.

EXERCISES.

1. What fresh levy did Bonaparte order? What revolution took place in Holland? Who commanded the British army there?

2. What ships were taken from the Americans? What was the success of the British and American armies?

3. What victory did Wellington obtain at Vittoria? How did Sir John Murray behave at Tarragona? Who took the command of the French army in Spain? What success had he against the British? By whom was the fortress of St Sebastian taken?

4. When did Wellington enter France? Who first proclaimed Louis XVIII.? What took place at Toulouse?

5. When did the allied sovereigns enter France? What were the subsequent operations? Whom did Bonaparte attack at this juncture?

6. What actions next took place betwixt the allies and Bonaparte? What expedient had Bonaparte recourse to in his extremity? What plan did the allies adopt?

7. When did the allies enter Paris? By whom was Bonaparte at last deposed? Whom did the French now choose for their sovereign?

8. What took place in London at this time? When was peace betwixt Britain and France signed? What princes visited London? When did Louis XVIII. enter Paris? What petitions were now presented to parliament?

9. To what island was Bonaparte conveyed? How did Louis endeavour to support his power? What occasioned new discontents in France?

10. When did Bonaparte land from Elba? What became of Louis?

11. Who took the city of Washington? What check did the British receive at Plattsburg? When was peace concluded betwixt Britain and America?

12. What declaration did the allied powers issue? Of what number did the French army consist? What desperate battle took place at Ligny?

13. What were the particulars of the subsequent engagement at Quatre-Bras?

SECTION XIII.

1. In consequence of the retreat of the Prussians, the Duke of Wellington, on the 17th of June, retired to Waterloo, where he concentrated his army, consisting of thirty thousand British, and fifty thousand Germans, Belgians, and Dutch. At eleven

o'clock in the forenoon of the 18th, Bonaparte, whose force consisted of nearly a hundred thousand men, with one of his corps attacked a country-house on the right of the British, where the Nassau troops were posted. These were obliged to give way; but the house itself was so well defended, that the assailants could not gain possession of it. This attack he accompanied with a dreadful fire of artillery, under cover of which he made repeated charges of cavalry; but the skill of Wellington, and the admirable courage and strength of the soldiers, rendered all his attempts abortive.

2. During the day Bonaparte, unable to conceal his astonishment at the flight of his finest troops, was repeatedly constrained to mutter compliments to the spirit and steadiness of the British. About seven in the evening, learning that the Prussians were coming up, he made a last desperate effort, by ordering Marshal Ney to advance at the head of nine regiments of the old and middle guard, who, in mournful silence, attacked the centre and left of the allies. He succeeded for a moment in driving back the Brunswickers; but the Duke of Wellington, putting himself at their head, and animating them with a short speech, renewed the combat. The whole French army had their eyes fixed on the old guard, which had never before failed. New efforts were made, in a surprising degree, by this renowned and formidable soldiery; but not an inch of ground was gained by them, though their artillery poured an iron shower, and their cavalry followed with a desperate charge. A brigade of foot-guards advanced to meet them, and soon the boasted troops of the enemy were charged and routed at the point of the bayonet!

3. At this critical moment, the Prussians came up under Prince Blucher and General Bulow, when Wellington gave orders for a general attack. Meanwhile, Bonaparte had waited with the greatest anxiety the result of the charge made by his celebrated guard; but on seeing that flower of his army completely checked, he lost all hope, and hastily retired to the farm of La Belle Alliance. Here he beheld, with vexation, rage, and despair, the superb charge of the whole British line. He was now surrounded and borne away by a throng of fugitives. Some of his officers broke through the crowd, and forced him along with them almost in a state of insensibility.

4. The British, completely exhausted, left the pursuit to the Prussians, who, coming comparatively fresh to battle, soon changed the retreat of the French into a rout the most destructive perhaps ever known. The whole army scattered like a torrent; the cannoneers abandoned their guns, the soldiers of the train cut the traces of their horses, the infantry,

the cavalry, and troops of every kind, were mingled and confounded, presenting now only a tumultuous mass, which nothing could arrest, and who were chiefly intent on preserving their lives. A vast number of carriages along the sides of the road followed the movement with precipitation, and crowded the path to such a degree that not a wheel could move. No point of rendezvous had been fixed, and no word of command could now be heard. The generals, and other chiefs, lost in the crowd and carried along with it, were separated from their respective corps, and every one saved himself as he best could. As the retreating army approached the bridge over the Sambre, a horrible scene presented itself. The passage became obstructed by numbers. Horsemen, infantry, and carriages, rushed on, contending who should cross first. The stronger unfeelingly thrust aside or trode upon the weaker, and often drew their sabres, or their bayonets, on such as offered any resistance. Many were crushed by the waggons or artillery; so that at length the heaps of dead bodies, continually increasing, formed an almost insurmountable obstacle. At this dreadful moment the Prussians appeared. The confusion now redoubled. Some hastily cut the traces of their horses, and, springing upon them, abandoned the carriages, and forced their way through the crowd. Others turned off at the end of the bridge, and, driving furiously along the banks of the Sambre, sought a passage, and at length desperately plunging in, were swept away by the torrent. Many hundreds, who had been congratulating themselves on their escape, perished here at a distance of thirty miles from the field of battle.

5. After the Prussians had engaged in the pursuit, the Duke of Wellington returned to Waterloo. As he crossed again the bloody field on which the silence of death had now succeeded the storm of battle, by the light of the moon he saw himself surrounded by the mangled corpses of his veteran soldiers,—of his friends and associates in arms,—his companions through many an eventful year of danger and of glory. In that awful pause, the feelings of the man triumphed over those of the general, and, in the very hour of victory, he is said to have been unable to restrain his tears! Thus ended this memorable fight, in which (including the actions of the fifteenth and sixteenth) forty thousand of the French were killed, three hundred pieces of cannon were taken, and fourteen thousand prisoners; whilst the Prussians lost sixteen thousand, and the British thirteen thousand men. The glory acquired by this victory is enhanced by its being gained over an army composed entirely of veterans, whom many years of service had accustomed to all the manœuvres of war, and ren-

dered both expert and determined; who had sworn to conquer or die; and who, in their own estimation, were invincible under the command of a general who had vanquished and overrun a great part of Europe. Against this formidable force, the British commander led an army inferior in numbers, composed of various, and, in some respects, discordant materials, a great proportion of whom had now for the first time taken the field.

6. After refreshing their men, Wellington and Prince Blucher advanced rapidly towards Paris. Marshal Grouchy, having in addition to his own corps collected some of the fugitives from Waterloo, at last reached the capital with about forty thousand men. He failed, however, in an attempt to defend the left bank of the Seine against the Prussians; and Paris was a second time surrendered to the allies by a military convention. In virtue of this treaty the French troops were permitted to march to the Loire; public and private property was to be respected, and no person called to account for his conduct or opinions. Bonaparte in the meantime had proceeded to Rochefort, where vessels were prepared to carry him and his attendants to America. But the British government, informed of such an intention, blockaded this part of the coast so effectually, that he found himself compelled to surrender to Captain Maitland of the *Bellerophon*. In this ship he was brought to the coast of England, where, however, he was not suffered to land; and, on the 7th of August, sailed with part of his suite in the *Northumberland*, commanded by Sir George Cockburn, to the island of St Helena, where he landed on the 15th of October, to be kept there during the remainder of his life.

7. On the 8th of July, Louis, having again entered his capital, appointed a privy-council and eight responsible ministers. The army which had left Paris assumed for some time an attitude of defiance,—but at length submitted, and was disbanded. By a treaty, ratified before the close of the season, the French agreed to pay a pecuniary indemnity of seven hundred millions of francs, by equal instalments, in the course of five years; and, in the meantime, a considerable part of their territory and their strongest fortified towns, were to be occupied by an allied force, consisting of one hundred and fifty thousand men, under the command of the Duke of Wellington.

8. At Nismes, in the south of France, the catholics having risen and massacred the protestants, the intelligence excited the deepest interest in Britain. An address was presented by the livery of London to the prince regent, praying that government would interpose its influence in behalf of their

suffering brethren. Collections were also made for their relief. The French ministry published a proclamation, declaring their determination to punish the assassins, and protect the protestants in the exercise of their religion. Many thousands of the latter, however, apprehensive lest the horrid scenes which they had witnessed should be renewed, sought an asylum in Switzerland.—The state of France was far from being tranquil after the conclusion of the war. In many of the provinces proofs of disaffection were still manifest. The measures of Louis were timid and vacillating. The feelings of the nation had been wounded, their pride humbled, and the severe remedies applied had served to irritate and inflame them. Hence there was reason to apprehend that it would require a considerable length of time, and a government not less wise than determined, to restore France to that state in which she might become a peaceable, safe, and useful member of the European community.

9. Parliament having passed a corn-bill this year, great riots took place in London and other places. The thanks of both houses were voted to the Duke of Wellington, and also the sum of four hundred thousand pounds for building a suitable mansion. The national character of the British at this time was also distinguished by their benevolent subscriptions for the relief of the wounded, as well as of the widows and orphans, occasioned by the battle of Waterloo. The astonishing sum of five hundred thousand pounds was raised for this patriotic fund.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the Duke of Wellington's position previous to the battle of Waterloo? Of what number did Wellington's army consist? Were the French more numerous? How did Bonaparte attack the British army? What resistance did he meet with?

2. How did Bonaparte act on the approach of the Prussians? Who opposed the old French guard? By whom were they routed?

3. What occurred on the arrival of the Prussians? What became of Bonaparte in the flight that ensued?

4. What confusion now ensued? What took place on crossing the Sambre?

5. How was the Duke of Wellington affected on his return to Waterloo? What loss was sustained by each army in this celebrated battle? What were the circumstances which rendered it so glorious to the British?

6. To whom was Paris surrendered? What became of Bonaparte?

7. When did Louis return? What were the stipulations of the treaty of peace?

8. What melancholy event took place at Nismes? What was the state of France at this period?

9. What occasioned riots in London and other places this year? What grant was made at this time by the British parliament? What subscriptions were raised for the wounded, widows, and orphans, occasioned by the battle of Waterloo?

SECTION XIV.

1. WHILE the British thus contributed so gloriously to terminate one of the longest and most sanguinary wars that ever desolated the countries of Europe, their arms were equally successful in the more distant regions of the globe. In the East Indies their power had been established over most of the native princes, who readily owned subjection to their sway. But at this time, the Nepaulese, a race of people inhabiting a country on the northern boundaries of our Asiatic dominions, having made repeated incursions into the provinces of Oude and Bahar, provoked the governor-general to declare war against them. Accordingly an army was despatched under General Gillespie and Colonel Ochterlony, who penetrated into their country, and, after taking several of their fortresses and dispersing their troops, obliged them to surrender the frontier provinces which they had seized, together with a large portion of their own territories. In another part of India, our countrymen this year made an easy though a very valuable conquest. The island of Ceylon had been formerly subdued by our arms, though the native prince had been allowed to retain possession of his regal authority. This, however, he exercised so tyrannically over his own subjects, and even over the natives who were under our protection, that General Brownrigg, the governor, was induced to commence hostilities against him. An army was therefore conducted to the capital; but, the king having fled, his chiefs without any struggle agreed to submit to the English government.

2. Though the British were thus at peace with foreign countries, yet internal disturbances broke out which threatened at first the most alarming consequences. As our agricultural produce and manufactures were required to supply not only our own armies but even some of the nations of Europe during the war, these were not so much in demand after the return of peace, because the people on the Continent began to resume the labours of industry, and to provide themselves with commodities. Hence the various establishments throughout the kingdom were diminished, and a number of workmen thrown out of employment, who, imputing their distresses to the measures of government, assembled in various quarters to make known their grievances, and to present petitions for a reform in parliament. But these tumultuary meetings of the manufacturers gradually ceased when they were convinced that the legislature could grant them no relief, and that they must submit to the altered circumstances of their condition.—Meantime an event occurred which excited the

universal attention of the nation. Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, having visited this country, and been introduced to the Princess Charlotte of Wales, had the good fortune to engage her affections; and as the prince regent approved of her choice of him for a husband, their marriage was celebrated on the 2d of May 1816. To support the dignity of these royal personages, parliament granted them an income of £60,000 a-year, with an annuity of £50,000 to Prince Leopold, should he survive his illustrious consort. Soon after this union, another occurred in the royal family betwixt the Princess Mary and the Duke of Gloucester, for whom a suitable provision was also made by the house of commons.

3. These important domestic events had scarcely taken place, when the public attention was called to a naval expedition fitted out to take vengeance on a foreign state. The Algerines had long annoyed the trade of all the christian powers by capturing their vessels in the Mediterranean, and reducing their crews to a state of slavery. In order to check these enormities, the British ministry sent orders to Admiral Penrose, who commanded our fleet on that station, to insist that the states of Barbary should abstain from piracy, and restore the captives they had already seized. The Tunisians and Tripolitans agreed to these demands, and the government of Algiers also promised to comply with them; but instead of fulfilling their engagements, they imprisoned our consul, and massacred the crews of some Neapolitan and Corsican vessels that were under the protection of our flag. In consequence of this atrocity, Lord Exmouth was immediately despatched with a fleet of five ships of the line, and other vessels, which were joined at Gibraltar by six Dutch frigates, to demand from the dey the instant restitution of all christian slaves in his possession, or to compel him by force of arms to deliver them up. His lordship, having anchored off Algiers on the 27th of August, sent a flag of truce with these requisitions, and, as no answer was returned, prepared without delay to bombard the city. He accordingly opened a most tremendous fire upon the batteries, which, though mounted with one thousand pieces of cannon, were at last silenced; and next ordered some rockets to be thrown among the enemy's ships, which set them on fire, together with their arsenal and military stores. In this dreadful conflict, nearly two-thirds of the city were destroyed, and seven thousand of the Algerines killed or wounded. The dey being thus reduced to extremity, agreed to the terms proposed by the victor, who received all the captives on board his ships, and procured the abolition of slavery among all the states of Barbary.

4. But while our exertions were successfully employed in relieving foreigners from oppression, the inhabitants of our own country were still suffering unexampled distress from the want of employment among the labouring classes of society. Government was not insensible to the embarrassments which the people suffered; and accordingly parliament assembled on the 28th of January 1817, to adopt measures for granting such relief as legislative enactments could produce.—As the prince regent was returning from parliament, his life was endangered by a stone or ball, discharged from an air-gun, which perforated the glass of the state-carriage. This daring attempt to assassinate the representative of majesty excited the utmost alarm, and in consequence the ministry resolved to institute a particular inquiry into the disaffection which prevailed throughout the kingdom.

5. In the process of this investigation, it was discovered that an extensive conspiracy had been formed in various parts of England, for organizing an insurrection against the state. During the preceding year, immense numbers of the operative class had collected in London, and listened to the inflammatory speeches of political demagogues, who represented all their grievances as being occasioned by the unwise measures of government, and incited them to rebellion. These tumultuous meetings were again revived not only in the metropolis, but also in some of the most populous towns in the manufacturing districts. At Manchester, Nottingham, and other places, the people assembled in multitudes so great, and committed such violent outrages, as to justify the employment of soldiers to disperse them. At Derby a special commission was appointed to try the ringleaders of these insurrectionary; some of whom being found guilty were condemned to death, while others were sentenced to imprisonment or to transportation. Three of the conspirators, Brandreth, Turner, and Ludlam, were executed, which so terrified the rest that they did not attempt to renew their machinations. This extensive conspiracy, however, was not confined to England. In the west of Scotland also the manufacturing classes exhibited similar symptoms of insurrection; and several persons were tried before the high court of justiciary for sedition and administering unlawful oaths, of whom only one was imprisoned, and the rest were set at liberty. Although these vigorous measures checked the revolutionary spirit of the rioters, government nevertheless deemed it necessary to suspend the *habeas corpus* act,—a measure which deterred the disaffected from pursuing their seditious practices; and insurrectionary movements accordingly ceased throughout the kingdom.

6. From these political disturbances, which had agitated the whole community, the public were called to deplore a distressing event, in which the feelings of the nation were more deeply interested. The Princess Charlotte was delivered of a still-born male child on the 5th of November, and died next morning. Her sudden and unexpected death threw a gloom over all ranks of society, who, from her accomplishments and virtues, had formed the most flattering prospects of her, regarded as their future queen. The whole nation felt her untimely demise as a public loss, and expressed the most sincere grief. The remains of the princess and of her infant were deposited in the royal vault at Windsor, on the 19th of November, with a solemnity becoming the mournful occasion.

7. As the death of the princess occasioned some anxiety respecting the succession to the throne, the regent announced to parliament the intended marriages of several of his brothers, in order that additional incomes might be granted to support their establishments. The Duke of Clarence was united to the eldest daughter of the Duke of Saxe Meiningen; the Duke of Kent to a sister of Prince Leopold; and the Duke of Cambridge to a princess of Hesse Cassel. On each of the royal dukes an additional annuity of £6000 was conferred by parliament, to be continued, after their death, as jointures to their duchesses. Soon after the union of these high personages, the queen died on the 17th of November 1818, in the seventy-fifth year of her age. As her majesty had uniformly supported the dignity of her high station by maintaining the utmost propriety of conduct both in public and private life, she held a high place in the respect and esteem of the people.

8. This year was signalized by the success of our arms in the East Indies, under the Marquis of Hastings, against a warlike race of people called the Pindarees, who threatened to disturb the tranquillity of our Oriental dominions. During this and the preceding year political ferments had been excited in Scotland by the desire manifested among the people of Edinburgh, Dundee, Montrose, and Aberdeen, to obtain a new constitution of their respective burghs; but, except in those of Montrose and Dundee, parliament would not agree to any alteration.

9. The year 1819 was not distinguished by any events of importance, except the numerous meetings of the manufacturing classes throughout the kingdom, who, at the instigation of political incendiaries, presented a remonstrance against the alleged corruptions of government, and petitions for a radical reform in parliament. But no serious disturbances occurred

till the 16th of August, when an immense multitude, amounting to upwards of sixty thousand, assembled at Manchester, and marched into the town in military order, headed by the celebrated Mr Hunt. Having arrived at the market-place, this demagogue mounted a platform, and began to harangue the people who surrounded him. The magistrates, alarmed by these proceedings, gave orders to the yeomanry and regular troops, collected for the purpose of preventing disturbances, to proceed to the hustings and seize the orator. The cavalry, meeting with resistance from the mob, cleared their way with their drawn sabres, by which, together with the trampling of the horses, several persons were killed or wounded. Hunt and the ringleaders were taken into custody, and the crowd dispersed amidst threats of vengeance for the slaughter of their comrades. These proceedings excited a great sensation throughout the country, and much blame was attached to the magistrates for the employment of a military force on such an occasion; though their conduct was approved by government, as it was deemed proper to prevent the outrages that were likely to ensue.

10. To obviate a recurrence of these tumultuous meetings, parliament passed several acts against training and arming for insurrectionary purposes, as also against the authors of seditious publications. By these and other vigorous measures, the instigators of rebellion were overawed, and the community restored to peace and order.

11. The first public occurrence which distinguished the beginning of 1820 was the death of the Duke of Kent, which took place on the 23d of January. But a still more memorable event was the demise of our venerable sovereign, George III., at Windsor, on the 29th of the same month, in the eighty-second year of his age and sixtieth of his reign. The aged monarch had for many years been incapacitated from exercising the royal functions, though he continued to enjoy good health till a short time previous to his dissolution. This good prince reigned longer over the united kingdom than any of his predecessors; and, during his time, greater vicissitudes had taken place in the political world, and a larger share of glory had been acquired by his subjects, than in any former period of our history. His personal character was one of the most upright that ever adorned a throne, and has endeared his memory to every British heart.

12. He was succeeded by his eldest son, George IV., who was proclaimed in London on the 31st of January, and in the course of a week in all the principal towns of the kingdom. But notwithstanding the demonstrations of loyalty manifested

on his accession, a diabolical conspiracy to assassinate the cabinet ministers was discovered in the course of the ensuing month. A set of desperate villains, headed by Arthur Thistlewood, who had been formerly tried for high treason, assembled, on the 23d of February, in a house in Cato Street, with the intention of sallying out and despatching all the members of the government, who were to meet that day at Lord Harrowby's residence. The council, however, having received intelligence of their design, sent an armed party, who seized the conspirators and conveyed them to prison. They were soon after tried and condemned for high treason: Thistlewood and four of his companions were hanged, and the rest transported.

13. The nefarious attempt of these miscreants was succeeded by popular commotions in various parts of the kingdom, particularly about Huddersfield; but the insurgents, who had collected to the number of two or three hundred, were dispersed by a detachment of dragoons. In Scotland, however, the flame of sedition had spread more extensively; and the manufacturing classes in the neighbourhood of Glasgow held regular drillings, and issued proclamations enjoining labourers of all descriptions to desist from work and join their standard. In consequence of these proceedings, orders were given to all the yeomanry of the adjoining counties to assemble in that city; and on the 5th of April following, five thousand troops, well armed and disciplined, obeyed the summons. The disaffected were overawed by this imposing force, and durst not again appear in the streets; but a small body of them, supplied with muskets and pikes, proceeded to a spot called Bonnymuir, near Kilsyth, where they expected to be joined by great numbers of their associates. A troop of hussars soon routed these petty antagonists, and carried off nineteen prisoners; two of whom were executed at Stirling, one at Glasgow, and the rest, having pleaded guilty, were transported. The other insurgents, being convinced of their foolish conduct, were glad to renounce all attempts at rebellion, and the disturbances immediately ceased.

14. But a more important event soon afterwards excited a lively interest throughout the nation. Queen Caroline, having been absent on the Continent several years, now returned to claim the privileges due to her rank as consort of George IV. She had no sooner arrived in London, than the king sent a message to parliament inviting them to inquire into her majesty's conduct during her residence in foreign countries, and to examine certain documents respecting an alleged adulterous connexion which she was said to have formed; in order that,

if found guilty of this charge, she might be deprived of her dignities, and publicly divorced. A bill of pains and penalties, founded on the above charge, was accordingly produced in parliament against the queen, and her case was tried before the house of peers. The attorney-general opened the pleadings; a number of foreigners, who had accompanied her majesty abroad, were examined; minute exculpatory evidence was received at the bar; and her attorney-general was fully heard in her defence. Long and violent debates ensued on the evidence adduced; and, after a trial which continued forty-five days, the bill was carried through a second reading by a small majority of the peers; but the object of it was immediately abandoned, and a separate establishment, with an annuity of £50,000, was allotted to Caroline for life. During this important trial the greatest agitation prevailed throughout the kingdom, owing to the violence of the political parties who respectively defended or condemned her conduct; and even after its conclusion, animosities still continued, because her majesty had not been restored to all the privileges of her rank and station. This extraordinary excitement of the public mind, however, gradually abated as the nation began to forget the cause which had produced it.

15. No important transaction signalized the commencement of 1821; and the kingdom continued undisturbed either by intestine commotions or foreign warfare. On the 5th of May, however, an event occurred, which neither the people of Great Britain nor the inhabitants of any part of civilized Europe could regard with indifference; namely, the death of Napoleon Bonaparte, who had been confined as a state-prisoner in St Helena since 1815.—As public tranquillity reigned throughout the nation, preparations were now made for his majesty's coronation, and the ceremony took place on the 19th of July, accompanied by a degree of splendour and magnificence such as had never been witnessed on a similar occasion. Shortly after this occurrence, the king, who had formed the purpose of visiting his European dominions in succession, departed with a courtly retinue for Ireland. He landed at Dublin, and was there received with the warmest expressions of attachment, and the most magnificent display of loyalty, by all classes of his subjects.

16. During his majesty's voyage to Ireland, the queen, who had fallen into a delicate state of health, died on the 7th of August. As she had expressed a wish to be interred at Brunswick, government gave orders to have her remains conveyed thither; but, as the funeral was proceeding by a private road, it was interrupted by the populace, who having

rendered the way impassable, compelled the escort to pass through London towards Harwich, the place appointed for the embarkation. On the 15th of September, his majesty returned from Ireland, and, after a short stay in the metropolis, set out to visit his hereditary kingdom of Hanover. He arrived at the capital, where he received the congratulations of his continental subjects, and, after remaining a few weeks, enjoyed a safe passage to England.

17. At the commencement of 1822 general tranquillity prevailed throughout the country, and no seditious meetings were heard of; though a considerable sensation was excited in several of the burghs, which claimed a more equal representation in parliament.—The agriculturists and manufacturers, indeed, who were still in a depressed condition, presented numerous petitions to the legislature for relief; but it was soon found that no material change for the better could be effected except by a gradual reduction of taxes, the diminution of rents, and individual economy. While Great Britain was now free from internal commotions, the state of Ireland had become so alarming as to excite, in no small degree, the apprehensions of government. Numerous bands of desperate ruffians were in the habit of collecting in the middle and southern counties, to take revenge on such landed proprietors as exacted their rents, or had ejected those who were unwilling or unable to pay them. These banditti had maltreated or murdered several individuals, and still continued to perpetrate their outrages, in spite of the magistrates and of an armed force. As the peaceable inhabitants were harassed by these depredators, the operations of agriculture were neglected, and a scarcity of potatoes was consequently felt, which reduced great numbers to all the horrors of famine. For their relief large sums of money were collected in England and Scotland, and sent thither to purchase provisions for the most necessitous. Such generosity, while it supplied the wants of our destitute neighbours, redounded greatly to the credit of the national character.

18. This year was signalized by one of the most pleasing events that have occurred since the Union. His majesty had last year declared his intention to visit Scotland, after returning from Ireland; but circumstances at that time occurred to prevent the execution of his purpose. In the course of the spring, various reports of the royal visit began to be circulated; and these were at last confirmed by a letter from Lord Melville to the Lord Provost of Edinburgh, giving notice that the king might be expected in that city about the middle of August. In consequence of this intelligence, orders were

issued by the magistrates and other local authorities to make such preparations as were necessary for receiving the illustrious visiter in a manner suitable to the important occasion. On Saturday, the 10th day of the month now mentioned, he embarked at Greenwich, and, after encountering some tempestuous weather, arrived in Leith-roads on the 14th. Next day, a most magnificent retinue of courtiers, nobles, and the whole train of office-bearers in Scotland, together with the Highland chiefs and clans, accompanied the royal procession from Leith to the palace of Holyrood House, amidst thousands of spectators, who rent the air with the loudest acclamations. So grand a spectacle was truly imposing;—and it would be difficult to say, whether the people were more highly gratified with the splendour of this royal pageantry, or the sovereign with the immense assemblage and enthusiastic loyalty of his northern subjects. Never, perhaps, was there a greater concourse of people assembled in the capital of Scotland than at this time; their numbers being calculated to exceed 300,000. His majesty's arrival at the palace was announced by salutes fired from the castle, and from guns placed on the Calton Hill and Salisbury Crags. After receiving the congratulations of the magistrates and other authorities, he drove off in his private carriage to Dalkeith House, which had been elegantly fitted up for his residence. On the evening of the day on which he landed, fireworks were exhibited in Charlotte Square; and on the subsequent evening there was a brilliant illumination throughout the city.

19. As the king intended to appear frequently in public, for the purpose of establishing a reciprocal acquaintance with the people of Scotland, he spent the day after his arrival in private, to repose after the fatigues of his voyage, and to make arrangements for carrying the intention of his visit into effect. On the 17th of August, his majesty held his first levee at Holyrood House, which was attended by most of the nobility and gentry of the country, who exhibited a spectacle of grandeur that astonished even those who were familiar with such scenes in the British metropolis.—On the 19th, the announcement of a court and closet audience brought to the palace deputations from the universities, the established clergy, the episcopal church, the Highland Society, and from almost all the corporate bodies in Scotland, with addresses to his majesty, which were graciously received and answered.—The 20th was appointed for holding a drawing-room in the royal palace, where more than five hundred ladies of the first rank and distinction in the country were assembled, whose splendid equipages, and magnificent dresses,

excited universal admiration among the numerous spectators. —But these displays of rank, elegance, and beauty, were far surpassed by the pomp of his majesty's procession from the palace to the castle on the 22d. On that day, innumerable multitudes, from all parts of the country, occupied stations either on platforms or in the houses, to view their sovereign as he passed along; and the streets were lined by the public functionaries and incorporated bodies of Edinburgh and Leith. His majesty proceeded in a carriage up the High Street, accompanied by a splendid retinue of all the official persons in Scotland, carrying before him the sword of state, the sceptre, and the crown, at the sight of which the people testified their joy by the loudest acclamations. As the king advanced he was hailed by all ranks with the most enthusiastic demonstrations of loyalty; and, on arriving at the castle, he ascended the battlements and gave three cheers, which were re-echoed by the multitude with unbounded applause. Never, perhaps, were the feelings of the Scottish people wrought up to so high a pitch of transport as at that moment, when they beheld their king in the midst of them, manifesting his unfeigned regard for his subjects by all the expressions of affectionate exultation. His majesty returned to the palace by the new town, and received all the way the most rapturous demonstrations of loyalty from the assembled multitude, whose appearance and demeanour were observed by him with the highest approbation.—On the 23d, the king appeared on Portobello-sands, where he reviewed about three thousand yeomanry and other troops, whose accoutrements and discipline were deemed entitled to the highest encomiums from the royal spectator. In the evening, his majesty honoured with his presence a grand ball appointed by the peers to be held in the assembly-rooms, which were elegantly and superbly fitted up for the occasion.—Next day, he partook of a splendid banquet, given by the lord provost and magistrates of Edinburgh, in the great hall of the parliament-house, to which the most distinguished noblemen and gentlemen, amounting to nearly three hundred, were invited. The grandeur of the place, the magnificence of the banquet, and the rank of the company, all contributed to render this meeting one of the most august that had ever before assembled in Scotland. His majesty displayed the most exquisite politeness and affability, which endeared him to every heart, and raised in the whole company an estimation of his character that will never be effaced.—On Sunday the 25th, he attended divine service in the High Church; and thus afforded to the people a test of his regard for the presbyterian church of

Scotland, which was highly gratifying to their feelings, and exalted his majesty in their esteem. In proceeding to and from the church, he was much pleased to observe the populace behave with such becoming gravity, as is not, perhaps, exhibited in any other part of his dominions on this sacred day.—On the 26th, his majesty honoured with his presence another ball, given by the gentlemen of the Caledonian Hunt, an institution which he himself had condescended to patronize. He conversed familiarly with those who stood near him, and beheld the Scottish dances with unbounded delight.—The 27th was appointed for laying the foundation of the National Monument on the Calton-hill; on which occasion a great number of masonic bodies walked in procession to the site of the intended building, where the ceremony was performed by the grand master (his Grace the Duke of Hamilton) and the commissioners appointed to represent his majesty. On the evening of that day, the king made his last public appearance in Edinburgh at the theatre, where the national play of Rob Roy was admirably performed by the different actors. His majesty was much delighted with the delineations of Scottish character exhibited in the drama, and, both on his appearance and departure, was hailed by the audience with the most rapturous expressions of applause.—During the remainder of his stay in Scotland, the king visited some of the nobility in the neighbourhood; and, on Thursday the 29th, departed from Dalkeith-house, on his way to the Earl of Hopetoun's, with whom he partook of a splendid repast before leaving our shores. The royal squadron, in the meantime, arrived at Port Edgar, near Queensferry, where his majesty embarked with heartfelt satisfaction at the welcome reception he had met with from his Scottish subjects, and the increasing prosperity which they exhibited. After a favourable voyage, the king landed at Greenwich on the 1st of September, amidst the acclamations of an immense multitude, who had there assembled to hail his arrival from the northern parts of his British dominions. As the royal visit is such a memorable era in Scottish history, it has been deemed proper to give a particular account of this important event, which will be long remembered by the present generation, and proudly recorded in the annals of our country.

EXERCISES.

1. What race of people rebelled against the British government in the East Indies? By whom were they subdued? What island in the Indian ocean was conquered by our arms? Who achieved this conquest? What was the result of it?

2. What disturbances broke out in the country this year? What was the cause of them? When was the marriage of Prince Leopold and the Princess Charlotte celebrated? What annuity was granted them by parliament? What other marriage occurred in the royal family?

3. What naval expedition was now undertaken by the British government? How did Lord Exmouth conduct the expedition? What loss did the Algerines sustain? What were the terms on which peace was granted them?

4. What was the state of the country at the beginning of this year? What happened to the prince regent on returning from parliament?

5. What conspiracy was discovered at this time? What were the principal places where it was organized? What became of the conspirators? To what extent did the conspiracy prevail in Scotland? What measures did government adopt to suppress it?

6. When did the Princess Charlotte die? What were the circumstances of her death? How was the nation affected by this deplorable event?

7. What marriages now occurred in the royal family? What were the annuities granted to the parties by parliament? When did the queen die? What was her character?

8. Against whom were the British arms successful in the East Indies? What partial alterations were made in the burgh system in Scotland?

9. What disturbances occurred this year at Manchester? By whom were they chiefly instigated? What means were employed to disperse the meeting at Manchester? What was the consequence?

10. What measures did government adopt to suppress insurrection?

11. When and at what period of his life and reign did George III. die? What was his character?

12. When was George IV. proclaimed? What conspiracy was formed to assassinate the cabinet ministers? What became of the conspirators?

13. What popular commotions ensued at this period in England? What means were employed to suppress them in Scotland? Where did a part of the insurgents assemble? By whom were they at last dispersed?

14. What was the cause of the queen's trial? How was it conducted during the investigation? What was its final result? What feelings did it excite in the nation?

15. When and where did Napoleon Bonaparte die? When was his majesty's coronation celebrated? What country did his majesty now visit? How was he received?

16. When did the queen die? What occurred at her funeral? To what place did the king repair after returning from Ireland?

17. What was the state of Great Britain at this period? What disturbances occurred in Ireland? What was their effect upon the people? How were the sufferers relieved?

18. When did his majesty resolve to visit Scotland? What preparations were made for his reception? When did his majesty arrive in Leith-roads? What occurred on the day of his landing in Scotland? What number of people were supposed to be assembled in Edinburgh on that occasion?

19. What were the particular incidents that happened in Edinburgh during the royal visit? When did his majesty embark on his return to England? When did he arrive at Greenwich?

SECTION XV.

1. A MELANCHOLY event, of which his majesty received tidings during the voyage to Scotland, had imposed the necessity of making some changes in the administration. The Marquis of Londonderry, secretary of state for foreign affairs, after having exhibited various indications of mental derangement, supposed to be the result of anxiety in the discharge of

his official duties, put a period to his life on the 12th August 1822. His lordship's character as a statesman, though never popular, left room for some differences of opinion, according to the political views of those who undertook the task of delineating it; but all agreed in bestowing on him the praise of marked attention to business, and great equanimity of temper. In private life, it was allowed, he possessed many good qualities; and the estimation in which these were held seems ultimately to have abated the virulence with which, at one time, various ministerial measures, imputed to him, were condemned. His lordship was succeeded by Mr Canning, as foreign secretary; Mr Robinson received the place of Chancellor of the Exchequer, which was vacated by Mr Vansittart, now raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Bexley; the presidentship of the Board of Trade was filled by Mr Huskisson; and Lord Liverpool still remained prime minister. The session of parliament, 1823, to which these appointments were preparatory, was opened by commission, as his majesty felt too much indisposed to meet the houses in person. Topics of high importance were alluded to in the royal speech, and some of these, as had been anticipated, gave rise to considerable debate. The one of most interest, as touching foreign concerns, related to the misunderstanding between France and Spain. The former power threatened the latter with invasion, for the purpose of re-establishing Ferdinand on the throne, of which his subjects, now intent on a liberal constitution, had deprived him. Decisive interference was not at this period the policy of the British ministry, who, in spite of an active Opposition, remained at peace. Mr Canning, whose principles were understood to influence the procedure of government, soon afterwards availed himself of an opportunity to defend himself and his colleagues against the idea of having laboured under any consciousness of national weakness; while he acknowledged the advantage and the expediency of repose, with a view to the recovery of perfect strength. His memorable words appear to have served as a guide to those who succeeded him:—"England silently concentrates her power to be put forth on an adequate occasion. But God forbid that that occasion should arise. After a war sustained for nearly a quarter of a century, sometimes singlehanded, and with all Europe arrayed against her, or at her side, she needs a period of tranquillity, and may enjoy it without fear of misconstruction." Among the subjects of a domestic nature, touched on in the speech, distinction was given to the loyal feelings by which the people of Scotland had recently sig-

nalized themselves. Notice was likewise taken of the distresses of Ireland, which furnished ample matter for debate, especially in the lower house; as did also the question regarding a reduction of taxes, rendered peculiarly desirable by the depressed state of agriculture. But, from the nature of the discussion, it was manifest to all parties that no effectual relief could be devised.

2. The aspect of public affairs at the commencement of the session, 1824, was supposed to justify the expectations of those politicians who had contended, notwithstanding the clamour for legislative interference, that the country was advancing in a course of prosperity. Agricultural produce brought higher prices, the manufacturers were fully employed, and had a fair remuneration for their labour; while the abundance of floating capital implied both very extensive profit and the command of future improvement. The main grievance complained of was the difficulty of finding channels into which the wealth of the nation might be profitably directed; a circumstance which gave birth to numerous projectors, who rivalled each other in the ingenuity with which they excited the hopes of gain, and the confidence with which they pointed out the means of realizing it. A rage for speculation became universal,—and, under the plausible guarantee of joint-stock companies, soon engrossed both the attention and the money of all classes. That many judicious plans were connected with or sprung from it, is not to be denied; but there needed only a little reflection, or a little time, to demonstrate the fallacy, if not the dishonesty, of many more. So prevalent, however, was the delusion of enterprise, that there were few persons throughout the empire who did not, directly or indirectly, share in the hazards of both kinds; and that in a manner which rather deserved the title of gambling than the character of prudent transactions. Many persons were enriched, in a comparatively brief period, and with little exertion,—many, at a later stage of the epidemic, suffered greatly, or were entirely ruined; and, in a word, capital, whether real or only existing in name, appeared, fluctuated, and vanished, with a rapidity unequalled in the annals of commerce. Scotland participated in this spirit to the full amount of her limited means, and had to experience a corresponding share of both good and bad fortune. The latter predominated,—as not above five or six, out of more than thirty, of the joint-stock schemes, which sprung up in her metropolis and other large towns, justified the encouragement of those by whom they had been originally recommended. But the government of the country meanwhile proceeded in a smooth and even tenor, and sustained little annoyance from

the Opposition. This is to be attributed in a great degree to the popular qualifications and liberal views of Mr Canning, by whom the foreign concerns of the nation continued to be managed. In the course of discussing the perpetually renewed question regarding the Catholic claims, which that gentleman had invariably advocated, it was apparent that the prejudices by which they had hitherto been resisted were giving way; but the cabinet was distinctly divided in opinion as to its merits, and, in consequence, so far weakened as to recognise only the principle of neutrality. Mr Huskisson, in his peculiar department, had now an opportunity to introduce some of his maxims on free trade; to the investigation and support of which he had devoted much of his time and talents. His majesty closed the session in person, and, in his speech from the throne, exhorted the members to carry home with them those feelings of unanimity and confidence in the government which had been so manifest during their assembly.

3. The Dey of Algiers, new in authority, having violated the terms of the treaty entered into with Lord Exmouth, and behaved most discourteously to the British consul, was brought to reason by the appearance of a fleet, commanded by Sir H. Neale. In the beginning of the year, the British troops on the African coast, with their native allies, suffered in an attack from the Ashantees. Their commander Sir Charles M'Carthy, and several of his officers, were killed; but these savage people were defeated a few months afterwards by Colonel Sutherland. In another quarter of the globe, a more important and sanguinary war broke out, between the Indian government and the Burmese empire, the issue of which will be presently mentioned. Louis XVIII. died on the 16th September, and was succeeded by his brother, who, on his accession, under the title of Charles X., declared his wish to maintain the friendly relations which existed between France and Britain. At this period, with the exceptions above mentioned, the nation was at peace with the whole world; and, besides its usual commercial advantages, had the prospect of a beneficial intercourse being established with the republics of South America.—His majesty, ever a munificent patron of the arts and sciences, gave £500 towards erecting a monument to the memory of the late James Watt, one of the greatest benefactors to his country which the age has produced.—This year is memorable, in the history of the Scottish metropolis, for more numerous and extensive fires than had taken place in it since the commencement of the 18th century. A bill, generally known under the name of Lord Aberdeen's act, passed at this time. Its object was to enable

heirs of entailed properties in Scotland to burden their successors with certain provisions or allowances for widows and children; and it is one of the most important measures yet carried into effect, as a remedy against the increasing evils arising from the system of entail.

4. The appearances of internal prosperity, which had given such general satisfaction, still buoyed up the nation at the commencement of 1825; but ere long they were discovered to be fallacious in the extreme. A state of reaction, dismay, and embarrassment, was the consequence, and to such an amount as fully warranted the title applied to this period, namely, *the year of panic*. The affairs of Ireland, too, produced no small apprehension of a rebellion. It was certainly very possible among a people, who, long tantalized with the hope of emancipation from what they deemed unjust and degrading enactments, were resolved, by combination and every other means not expressly illegal, to accomplish the object of their wishes. For this purpose, the Roman Catholics of that country concerted a system for exciting the passions of their adherents and raising money, which, though not contrary to any existing statute, was too intimidating to be passed over by a vigilant government. Accordingly, the ministry introduced a bill for its suppression, and also for the discouragement of all meetings by which the peace of the country might be endangered. The Catholics were prompt in their obedience to the letter of the new law; but equally so in devising a mode by which its spirit might be violated. Another association, as active and as formidable, took the field under the same banner, and with brighter prospects. The question respecting their claims was again brought forward; but, though successful in the early stages through the commons, ultimately failed,—greatly, it is believed, in consequence of the spirited opposition of the Duke of York, then presumptive heir to the throne.—During the session, taxes to the amount of one million and a half were removed; but such an abatement was insignificant, when compared with distresses which seemed to call for a much greater.

5. The war in India still raged, and at length Sir Archibald Campbell advanced to the strong town of Donabew, where the Burmese chief, Bandoolah, had fixed his head-quarters. On the death of this leader, which was occasioned by the bursting of a shell, the natives, in place of sustaining a siege, made a precipitate retreat, leaving several important positions to the British. These events occurred in February; but at a later period in the year, the King of Ava, having failed in a negotiation, the object of which was the preservation of his own

territories, sent a very large army into the field against our countrymen, who had previously suffered greatly by disease and hard service. Various engagements took place productive of very severe losses to both sides; but, ultimately, the Burmese were so entirely defeated as to become seemingly, though not sincerely, desirous of peace. A treaty, arranged between the belligerents early in the following season, proved both hollow and of short duration; as the enemy, reluctant to cede some of their provinces and to pay a large sum of money, according to the stipulations, provoked another appeal to arms. The result was equally disastrous to those hardy but perfidious warriors, who were obliged, after farther defeat, to acknowledge the complete superiority of their antagonists.—Towards the end of 1825, Lord Combermere, on the death of the Rajah of Bhurtpore, who left a son as his successor under the protection of the Company, had to commence operations against the usurper of his throne. These ended in the capture of that fortress by assault, the surrender of other strong places, and the establishment of the young prince's authority over his paternal dominions. Alexander, emperor of Russia, died at Taganrog on the 1st December of this year. He was succeeded by the Grand-duke Nicholas, one of his brothers, but not the eldest; as Constantine, who stood nearer to the throne, had in 1823 renounced his right. The two princes mutually recognised each other as entitled to the dignity; but, after a singular display of generosity and self-denial on the part of both, the elder, adhering to his purpose, remained a subject. Some of the troops attached to him were displeased with the final arrangement, mutinied, and could not be quelled without bloodshed.

6. The commencement of 1826 exhibited a complete contrast to that of 1824, as now the evils of over-excitement were fully perceived and felt. Upwards of seventy banks had failed in the course of a few months; credit and commercial undertakings seemed quite paralyzed; and all classes of the community experienced great distress. Allusion was made to these calamities in the king's speech, which attributed them to the right cause, and invited parliament to devise means by which their recurrence might be avoided. A metallic currency, in place of small notes, and an alteration in the banking system itself, were among the remedies proposed, and amply discussed in the legislative assemblies. With regard to both, it may be remarked that, however expedient or necessary for England, there were circumstances in the pecuniary arrangements and mercantile history of the northern kingdom which neither called for, nor could safely

permit, their introduction. In Scotland, accordingly, there prevailed a high degree of alarm at the idea of innovation; several public meetings were held with a view to protect what had long been experienced, and still could be proved, to be beneficial as well as secure; and writers of eminence soon appeared in opposition to any such measures as were projected and threatened. This portion of the empire was accordingly exempted from the operation of the bill which abolished one-pound notes in the South.

7. Parliament was prorogued on the 31st May, and dissolved by proclamation on the 2d June, immediately after which writs were issued for the return of members to serve in a new one. The country, therefore, was speedily involved in all the contests incident to a general election, and in circumstances calculated to make it more than usually interesting. It is enough to mention the corn laws and Catholic emancipation, as the grand points on which an avowal of sentiments was expected from candidates, wherever the right to vote could be freely exercised. By an order of the privy-council, previously to the meeting of parliament, the ports were opened for the admission of certain kinds of grain,—a measure which contributed to the relief of the labouring classes. His majesty in person addressed both houses at their first assembly on the 21st November; and his appearance on this occasion, which was equally pleasing and propitious, revived a feeling of loyalty, which, in the absence of public exhibitions for a considerable time, had rather languished among the people. The speech from the throne assigned reasons for an earlier summons than was usual; showed the necessity for sanctioning the above-mentioned order; and announced the termination of the war in India, together with the existence of pacific relations between Britain and all other powers. It admitted the prevalence of very general distress throughout the country, as well as a diminution of the revenue; but concluded by expressing a hope, that the difficulties, so long and patiently endured, would be soon and permanently relieved. Subsequently, a message from the king communicated several particulars respecting an unsuccessful attempt, on the part of his majesty and the King of France, to adjust certain important differences between Spain and Portugal; and also an application by the regent of the latter nation for assistance to repel an attack with which she was threatened. Parliament heartily agreed to support the ancient ally of England; and, accordingly, a body of troops was despatched with extraordinary celerity to Portugal. The ministry at this period possessed the unbounded

confidence of the nation, and experienced little opposition to any of its measures.

8. In the course of this year, the Ashantees again disturbed the English settlements by the advance of an army of 20,000 men under their king. Colonel Purdon, with little more than half that force, of which only about 600 were Europeans, engaged them and obtained a decisive victory. The head of the unfortunate Sir Charles M'Carthy was found among the spoils of the enemy, who had preserved it as a charm in the manner peculiar to their shocking superstition.—The King of Portugal died at Lisbon in the month of March. His eldest son, Don Pedro, then Emperor of Brazil, where he resided, relinquished the European crown in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria, a child only seven years old, whom he destined as the bride of her uncle, Don Miguel. His last act of sovereignty, with regard to that kingdom, was the grant of a constitutional charter, which conferred various rights and privileges on the people, before unknown to them. This, however, a considerable party of them had not love of liberty enough to appreciate. They conspired against it, and endeavoured though unsuccessfully to raise Don Miguel to the throne with absolute power.—In March, the bank of England agreed to aid the manufacturing and commercial districts in the west of Scotland by loans of money in sums not exceeding £10,000, nor under £500, for which deposits on goods or personal securities were to be given; and, at a meeting of the inhabitants of Glasgow, held on May 16, for the purpose of devising relief to the distressed operatives, the chairman of the committee announced that his majesty had sent £1000 as a contribution to the funds.

9. At the commencement of 1827 the nation had to deplore the loss of his royal highness the Duke of York and Albany, who died, after a lingering illness, on the 5th of January, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. To the qualities inherent in his family—frankness, personal courage, and generosity—he added several of those higher virtues which are so estimable in exalted rank, while they are essential to the effective discharge of public duties. By the demise of this prince, the Duke of Clarence became presumptive heir to the throne, and as such, according to custom, was entitled to an increase of income from the legislature; but so great were the distresses of the labouring part of the community, that the motion for an addition occasioned a very spirited debate, and was not carried without opposition. The questions regarding the corn laws and the Catholic claims came again before parliament: soon after the opening of which, Lord Liverpool, still prime minister, was attacked by a stroke of palsy, which, though it did not

destroy life till December of the following year, completely deprived the country of his valuable services. This event greatly embarrassed the cabinet, which was known to be still divided on at least one topic of vital consequence—the political emancipation of those subjects who professed the faith of the Roman church. To this the Duke of Wellington, Lord Eldon, and Mr Peel, were decidedly opposed; while other ministers, either from greater liberality of sentiment, or a conviction of its approaching necessity, were understood to be in favour of it. Their difference of opinion had probably been prevented from breaking into an open rupture by the influence of Lord Liverpool; but, no sooner was this removed, than it became too evident to permit their continuance as a ministry. In the dilemma thence arising, his majesty had recourse to the advice of Mr Canning, on whom, after various negotiations, accompanied by the retirement of several who still resisted the Catholic claims, he was pleased to confer the seals of office as prime minister. This decision gave great umbrage to many servants of the crown, who vacated their situations, and formed a powerful and somewhat vexatious Opposition. With a view to strengthen his hands, he called in the aid of some of the leaders of the party with whom he had been formerly at variance, but whose sentiments mainly corresponded with his own as to the basis on which he had accepted office. Whatever objections may be urged against such alliances in general, the present example had some features which secured not only indulgence but approbation. The mind of the new minister, naturally acute, sedulously cultivated, brilliant almost to fascination, matured in politics, expert enough in detail, though ambitious of the highest range of general principles, and stimulated by the very difficulties which he saw thickening around him, would have sustained the most powerful opposition, and in all probability triumphed over it, had his life been prolonged. But these hopes were frustrated by death, while as yet the reins of the state were scarcely intrusted to his direction. George Canning, the pupil and friend of Pitt, whom he equalled in talent, and rivalled in fame, paid the debt of nature on the 8th August, in the same house, the Duke of Devonshire's at Chiswick, in which another illustrious senator and statesman, Charles Fox, had breathed his last. Without hazarding any farther remarks on his public character, it may be asserted that he was followed to the tomb by the regret of a large portion of his countrymen. Lord Goderich, now Earl of Ripon, was placed at the head of the administration, which he conducted amid many difficulties, during the short space of a few months.

10. Of the foreign events during this year, suffice it to mention the battle of Navarino, in which the combined fleets of Britain, France, and Russia, under Rear-admiral Codrington, defeated and nearly annihilated the Turkish navy on the 20th of October. The policy which led to this interposition, as well as the action itself, were variously construed, both by the friends and the opponents of the government, and also by the partisans and antagonists of the succeeding cabinet. —The ministry, though irreparably weakened by the death of Canning, was not destroyed. It proved, however, quite insufficient, and soon expired; upon which his majesty summoned the Duke of Wellington to the formation and head of a new cabinet. The greatest captain of the age fearlessly undertook the responsibility thus imposed on him, and lost no time in accomplishing the first duty of his unexpected office. He could number among his supporters the whole party which had retired on the late premier's elevation, as well as some of the political friends of that gentleman; and accordingly, with a selection of these, and reliance on all, he was ready to meet parliament on the 29th of January 1828. His vigilance and resolute spirit were speedily manifested, much to the surprise of those who had hitherto viewed him only as a soldier, and still more of some of the old Opposition, who, judging hastily of his principles from the creed with which these were supposed to be identified, perceived in him a disposition to adopt and carry into effect several of their own measures. Thus, the corporation and test Acts, so long complained of by many good subjects, but to which even Mr Canning, in spite of his liberality, had avowed adherence, were repealed; and a new bill, more satisfactory than the former, though still thought objectionable, was passed into a law. But the greatest effort of his policy, be its merits what they may, remained yet unachieved; and indeed, considering his previously avowed sentiments, was the least of all measures to be expected. We seek in vain for an explanation of his conduct on the great question of the Catholic claims, except in the obvious danger with which the denial or even the procrastination of them was connected. The Association in Ireland, busy as ever in the work of agitation, and daily increasing in strength, bore the features of rebellion under a very transparent guise. There might be a doubt entertained as to the practicability of subduing it by main force, should any overt acts demand the presence of an army; but there could be none that its complete overthrow, besides implying the horrors of civil war, would increase the feeling of hatred towards the victors. In vain did Orange societies and

Brunswick clubs, the old and the new antagonists of this hydra power, declare their strong sense of the evil that would arise from permitting any infringement of the Protestant constitution, and offer, in spirit if not in words, to sacrifice their blood and their treasure in its defence. The Catholics had discovered in union a mystic spring of tremendous power, and appeared resolved at a fitting time to try its energies; though, with a prudence very uncongenial to the Irish character, they suspended its operation till the last hour of forbearance and entreaty should expire. To add to their zeal, and in proof of what they could effect under semblance of law, though with no other fruit than the satisfaction which it afforded, Mr O'Connell, their enterprising leader, having, on a subtle construction of the statutes, stood candidate for Clare, was returned by an overwhelming majority. Many stanch advocates of their claims, in various parts of the empire, were no doubt scandalized and grieved by these and other proceedings, which they deemed likely to injure a good cause; but, however violent and uncompromising, it was impossible not to perceive in the alarm which they produced a species of argument more than ever entitled to serious consideration. This was not thrown away, as the history of the next year, which we must of necessity anticipate, unequivocally demonstrated. Such, then, was the condition of matters at the meeting of parliament on the 5th February 1829, when the administration of Wellington had to decide between two appalling hazards: on the one hand, to grapple with giant prejudices; and, on the other, to wield a thunderbolt against a reckless member of the empire. Posterity will judge of his wisdom, in preferring the former, by the consequences which are yet to flow from it; but the present generation, though still divided in opinion as to the process by which he was either led or compelled to his conclusion, cannot withhold from him the praise of humanity, for laying aside the habits of a soldier, and studying to become the pacificator of Ireland.

EXERCISES.

1. When and how did the Marquis of Londonderry die? By whom was he succeeded? Who remained prime minister after his death? What office was vacated by Mr Vansittart when made a peer? What topic of most interest was mentioned in the king's speech? Who defended the pacific policy of the ministry? What distresses were noticed in parliament? Were they relieved?

2. What was supposed to be the state of the country at the opening of parliament? What was the object of the schemes which were now proposed? On what did they operate? What was the character of many of them? Were they adopted? What were the consequences of them? Was Scotland concerned in them? What was the state of the cabinet regarding the Catholic claims? What was Mr Huskisson engaged in? What did his majesty recommend?

3. What was the conduct of the Dey of Algiers? Who attacked the British in Africa? Who was killed by them? Who afterwards defeated them? When did Louis XVIII. die? Who succeeded him? Who contributed to James Watt's monument? What memorable disasters occurred in Edinburgh in 1824? What was the object of Lord Aberdeen's act?

4. What title was applied to the year 1825? What was the state of affairs in Ireland? What was the conduct of the Roman Catholics there? What measure did it call forth? What was the fate of the question regarding their claims? To whom was it greatly ascribed? What amount of taxes was reduced?

5. Who retreated from Donabew? Who sent an army against the British in India? What was the disposition of the Burmese when treating for peace? Did they succeed in their appeal to war? Who captured Bhurt-pore? Why was it assaulted? What monarch died on the 1st of December? By whom was he succeeded?

6. What evils were experienced at the commencement of 1826? What measures were proposed as remedies? Were these equally necessary in Scotland? Was Scotland subjected to them?

7. In what was the country involved during the summer of 1826? Were there any subjects particularly interesting to the electors of members for parliament? What order was issued by the privy council? By whom was the new parliament addressed at their opening? On what topics did he chiefly touch? What was the purport of his subsequent message? How was it received by parliament? What was the state of the ministry?

8. What army was defeated in Africa? What was found among the spoil? What king died in March? Where did his eldest son reside? To whom was his throne relinquished? What was the conduct of his subjects? Who agreed to assist the manufacturers in the west of Scotland? In what manner was aid to be given them? What took place in Glasgow in May?

9. What had the nation to deplore at the beginning of 1827? Who became presumptive heir to the throne? What befell Lord Liverpool to render him incapable of duty as prime minister? What was the effect of it on the cabinet? What course was adopted by the king in consequence? What was the alliance formed by the new minister? When and where did he expire? What administration followed?

10. Who were allies at the battle of Navarino? Who was chosen prime minister after Lord Goderich? What friends did he rely on? By what did he surprise the old Opposition? What acts did he repeal which Mr Canning had supported? What was the great measure, formerly opposed by him, which he now proposed? What was the state of the Catholic Association? By what societies was it vainly opposed? In what was Mr O'Connell successful? With what difficulties had Wellington's administration to contend in regard to the Catholic question?

SECTION XVI.

1. THE session of 1829 was opened again by commission. His majesty's speech, after glancing at the war which still raged between Russia and the Ottoman Porte, the dubious relations with Portugal, and the existence of friendship with all the other European States, came to the topic in presence of which every thing else dwindled into perfect insignificance. The words in which allusion was made to it could not be misconceived, and are too impressive to be omitted. "The state of Ireland has been the object of his majesty's continued solicitude. His majesty laments, that in that part of

the United Kingdom an association should still exist, which is dangerous to the public peace, and inconsistent with the spirit of the constitution; which keeps alive discord and ill-will amongst his majesty's subjects, and which must, if permitted to continue, effectually obstruct every effort permanently to improve the condition of Ireland. His majesty confidently relies on the wisdom and on the support of his parliament; and his majesty feels assured that you will commit to him such powers as may enable his majesty to maintain his just authority. His majesty recommends, that when this essential object shall have been accomplished, you should take into your deliberate consideration the whole condition of Ireland; and that you should review the laws which impose civil disabilities on his Roman Catholic subjects. You will consider whether the removal of those disabilities can be effected consistently with the full and permanent security of our establishments in church and state, with the maintenance of the reformed religion established by law, and of the rights and privileges of the bishops and of the clergy of this realm, and of the churches committed to their charge. These are institutions which must ever be held sacred in this Protestant kingdom, and which it is the duty and the determination of his majesty to preserve inviolate. His majesty most earnestly recommends to you to enter upon the consideration of a subject of such paramount importance, deeply interesting to the best feelings of his people, and involving the tranquillity and concord of the United Kingdom, with the temper and the moderation which will best ensure the successful issue of your deliberations." A recommendation of this kind, coming from his majesty, virtually involved concession, and, in so doing, augured unanimity, however brought about, on the part of his confidential advisers; hence, friends and foes to the measure partook of a degree of excitement almost unprecedented in the history of England. Petitions for, and many more against, the Catholic claims poured in from all quarters; but, generally speaking, even the most urgent of the latter breathed a kindliness of feeling towards the Romanists themselves, which betokened how much all classes had gained both of christian principle and political liberality. Thus men, equally conscientious and equally attached to the constitution, were found on opposite sides; and, could adequate securities have been obtained for the preservation of what they all valued, it was to be presumed that they would all prove equally cordial in promoting the extension of civil rights. Past grievances were forgotten, as if by common consent; the most timid hoped that their fears of mischief were

unfounded ; the most confident could only rely on the value of the boon, as a pledge of the loyalty and gratitude with which it would be acknowledged ; and all admitted it to be desirable that Britons should be subjected to no other restraints than such as seemed absolutely requisite for the universal good. Of the debates in parliament on this momentous topic, it is unnecessary to say more than that, while they were carried on with an eagerness and a vivacity proportioned to the certainty of their being conclusive, they did not elicit a single ray of light, as far as general principle was concerned, which had been left undiscovered or unenjoyed at former discussions. A bill for the abolition of all the civil disabilities imposed on Roman Catholics,—founded on a repeal of the oaths of supremacy and abjuration, and on the substitution of an oath of allegiance,—and for rendering them eligible to all offices in the state, excepting a few specially named, was finally carried in both houses of parliament, and on the 13th April 1829 received the royal assent. It was honourable to some of the stanchest opposers of this great measure, that when once passed into a law, they acknowledged their respect for it, and expressed their best wishes for its beneficial operation. But the new advocates for it, whom a change of circumstances had called forth, more especially the Duke of Wellington and Mr Peel, on whose steadfast resistance in previous times so much trust had been reposed, were subjected to a degree of obloquy before which the firmest courage must have sunk, if not upheld by a sense of duty, and a persuasion that the voice of their country would one day applaud the sacrifices they had made. The latter, in particular, was sensitively alive to the personal odium which he foresaw would assail him. He alluded to it in his speech on the second reading of the bill, when, replying to the taunts which had been thrown against him for his opposition to Mr Canning ; doing justice to that distinguished man, and vindicating his own change of conduct, while he candidly awarded to other advocates for emancipation a praise unmerited by himself. “The credit, if it be a credit,” said he, “belongs to others, and not to me. It belongs to Fox, to Grattan, to Plunkett, to the gentlemen opposite, and to an illustrious and right honourable friend of mine, who is now no more. By their efforts, in spite of my opposition, it has proved triumphant and victorious. An honourable baronet has spoken of the cruel manner in which my right honourable friend was hunted down. Whoever joined in the inhuman cry which was raised against him, I was not one. I was on terms of the most friendly intimacy with that illustrious statesman, down even

to the day of his death; and I say with as much sincerity of heart as man can speak, that I wish he were now alive among us to reap the harvest which he sowed, and to enjoy the triumph which his exertions gained. I am well aware that the fate of this measure cannot now be altered: if it succeed, the credit will redound to others; if it fail, the responsibility will devolve upon me, and upon those with whom I have acted. These chances, with the loss of private friendship and the alienation of public confidence, I must have foreseen and calculated before I ventured to recommend those measures. I assure the house, that in conducting them I have met with the severest blow which it has ever been my lot to experience in my life; but I am convinced that the time will come, though I may not live perhaps to see it, when full justice will be done by men of all parties to the motives on which I have acted—when this question will be fully settled, and when others will see that I had no other alternative than to act as I have acted. They will then admit that the course I have followed, and which I am still prepared to follow, whatever imputation it may expose me to, is a course which is absolutely necessary for the diminution of the undue, illegitimate, and dangerous power of the Roman Catholics, and the maintenance and security of the Protestant religion.” The Duke of Wellington, not contented with a vindication so magnanimous and creditable, incurred the imputation of rashness, in addition to that of apostasy, by hazarding a duel with the Earl of Winchelsea, one of the most zealous of his opponents. Fortunately neither of these noblemen received any bodily damage; but the example was openly stigmatized as evil in both, by that sober portion of the community who, however they might differ on the question at issue, united very properly in viewing it through the medium of moral and religious as well as political principles.

2. War, which for some time had appeared certain, was proclaimed by Russia against Turkey on the 26th April 1828. The troops of the former nation passed the Pruth in May, and took Varna in the month of October following, chiefly through the treachery of the Pasha Yussuf. In August next year they crossed the Balkan Mountains, obtained possession of Adrianople without opposition, and in September dictated very humiliating terms to their prostrate foe. The conditions granted were as follow: the Pruth was to constitute the limit towards Europe; Silistria was to be dismantled; and such an alteration was to be made in the Asiatic boundaries, as that the whole eastern coast of the Black Sea, from the Kouban to the harbour of St Nicholas, should remain in the

possession of Russia. It was agreed that the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia should be confirmed in their rights, but no Turks permitted to mix with the inhabitants; that free trade should be established on the Black Sea, and the passage of the Straits allowed to vessels belonging to Russia and to all other countries at peace with the Porte; and finally, that the Sultan should defray the expenses of the war, and bind himself to accede to the treaties concluded at London in behalf of the Greeks.

3. In the meantime a cruel war raged in the Morea between the Turks and the army of their nominal vassal, the Pasha of Egypt. Ibrahim, the son of that ambitious chief, had laid waste a great part of the country, and reduced many of the strongest fortresses; but his career was arrested by the French general, Maison, who was sent thither by the Parisian government, at the head of a large military force. The countenance of England and the troops of France established the independence of the Grecian kingdom; and thus while the power of Russia was every day becoming more formidable on the eastern as well as on the western shores of the Euxine, a barrier was created in support of freedom in that celebrated portion of Europe, where liberty was first prized as the dearest inheritance of man, and purchased at the expense of the noblest sacrifices.

4. In Portugal, Don Miguel, who had been graciously received in England by the sovereign, no sooner returned to his native country than he usurped the throne, and finally declared himself absolute king. A premature attempt at insurrection in favour of Donna Maria having failed, a pretext was thereby afforded for many severities to which the partisans of her majesty, both at Oporto and Lisbon, were subjected. The prisons were filled with individuals whose attachment he suspected, and capital punishment was inflicted on great numbers for espousing the interests of the princess, whom they considered the lawful heir to the crown.

5. The close of 1828 was marked by an occurrence which excited a deep feeling of horror in all parts of the kingdom. An Irishman named Burke, resident in Edinburgh, assisted by Helen M'Dougal, with whom he cohabited, joined Hare, a person who let lodgings for low travellers, in the atrocious scheme of murdering such obscure persons as were not likely to be inquired after, and selling their bodies to the teachers of anatomy. In that frightful receptacle, according to the confession of the principal actor, no fewer than sixteen persons were suffocated, some in their sleep and others in a state of intoxication. Burke was found guilty and executed; the

female was acquitted; and Hare, who had been admitted as king's evidence, was allowed to escape.

6. The domestic annals of the country in the course of the year 1829 were clouded by some disastrous events, arising from accident and the violence of the elements. The first we shall mention, which cannot however be ascribed to either of these causes, was the destruction of York Minster by fire. The conflagration was traced to the hand of James Martin, an insane person, who seems to have been actuated by certain fanatical notions, which, though he was willing to avow, he was not able to explain. Great part of the choir, with the magnificent organ, fell a sacrifice to the devouring element; but the eastern window, one of the glories of English architecture, was fortunately preserved without sustaining any material damage. The theatre at Glasgow was destroyed in a similar manner, though the loss in this case could not be attributed to the design of any incendiary. But the most remarkable occurrence, and by far the most deplorable, both in respect to life and property, was the inundation in the north of Scotland, occasioned by the overflowing of the principal rivers in the county of Moray. Owing to a succession of heavy rains, vast masses of water descended from the neighbouring mountains, and as the channels could not contain the unwonted currents which rushed into them, the adjoining plains, to the extent of nearly twenty square miles, were covered to a great depth. Many bridges, roads, and dwelling houses were swept away by the resistless flood, and even the soil was so completely washed off numerous fields that some farms were rendered almost entirely unproductive. Few lives were lost, but thousands of poor persons were deprived of all their means of subsistence; a privation which was instantly met by the generosity of the public, who raised a large sum of money to relieve the wants of the most necessitous, and to reward the intrepid exertions of those who incurred the greatest hazards in order to save others.

7. The session of 1829 was closed by commission,—his majesty being now unable to endure the fatigue of public ceremonies, whether in the way of duty or of courtly exhibition. The latter years of his life, indeed, were passed very much in private; and his seclusion was but rarely interrupted by those dignified entertainments, which his refinement of taste and urbanity of manners qualified him so well to sustain. He took occasional rides, and adopted other exercises or recreation for the sake of health; but, to those who were near his person, it became obvious, in the spring of 1830, that his constitution was giving way. His ailments

and infirmities wore a serious appearance in the month of April; though the nature of the disease under which he laboured was stated with so much reserve as to disappoint the anxiety of his affectionate subjects. The fatal termination of his majesty's illness was at length announced on 26th June, in these words:—"It has pleased Almighty God to take from this world the king's most excellent majesty. The king expired at a quarter past three o'clock this morning without pain." This was followed in due time by a minute report of the morbid appearances, with which and other particulars it is unnecessary to swell this brief narrative. During the whole of his majesty's long indisposition, it is gratifying to think that his mental powers were not only unimpaired, but directed, so far as suffering allowed, to those sources of consolation and prospects of futurity without which human grandeur is a vain show, and in comparison of which worldly felicity is no better than a dream. The king being informed by his professional attendants that his dissolution approached, devoutly prepared for it; and when, to his own conviction, the last enemy of man had raised the hand which was to level him with the humblest of the sons of mortality, he acknowledged the summons in the feebly uttered words, "This is death," and was no more an inhabitant of earth. Thus died George IV., in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the eleventh of his reign as sovereign of Great Britain. He was descended from James VI. of Scotland, through his daughter Elizabeth, Queen of Bohemia, on whose offspring, failing the children of Charles I., devolved the title to the throne. The eulogium of this prince, both as regent and king, must be founded on the general beneficence of his government, the countenance uniformly given by him to whatever was calculated either to promote the happiness or to extend the glory of his country, and the good sense with which he took advantage of every event affecting its interests. To the welfare of these, when clearly discerned, he did not hesitate to relinquish his own prepossessions, however early formed or openly avowed. There was a magnanimity in such sacrifices, which, on the one hand, even they who were disappointed could not fail to appreciate, and which, on the other, forbade the presumption of personal attachment in those on whom his confidence was newly bestowed. It may have exposed him at times to the imputation of fickleness, or too great facility of temper; but this could only be among the few, who wanted either the judgment to estimate the reasons of his conduct, or the candour to acknowledge their wisdom. His eldest friends did not join in aggravating the odium so in-

curred. Their forbearance, though equivocal, may be regarded as a proof that it was unmerited; while it proved at once their own loyalty, and their sense of his patriotism. Great Britain, under his sway, surmounted extraordinary difficulties, escaped imminent dangers, and still maintained a position equally enviable, respected, powerful, and advantageous, at the head of civilized nations. The private life of an English king, inasmuch as it cannot be altogether hidden, and has even a visible effect on his policy and his reputation, must be tried by the standard to which, in a Christian community, all character is amenable. Here, however, charity may shed tears, while justice holds the trembling balance. George IV. had strong propensities, and he too freely indulged them; at one period, to the derangement of his finances; at another to the discomfort of his family; and permanently to the diminution of that esteem to which, but for their unhappy influence over him, he would have been entitled. Self-restraint, the primary element of moral virtue, and, as its fruit, of rational happiness, was apparently unknown to him. In mentioning this defect in his character, we point to the source of many vices and sorrows, which, notwithstanding much that was amiable in his temper and dignified in his deportment, imbibited the greater part of his life.

EXERCISES.

1. In what manner was the session of 1829 opened? To what things did the king's speech generally allude? What was the principal subject of the royal speech? In what spirit did his majesty wish the Catholic question to be considered? What changes of opinion concerning it had taken place? When was the bill finally passed? Who had to incur odium for carrying it? What was the ground of Mr Peel's defence? What duel took place in consequence of such imputations?

2. What war was proclaimed in April 1828? What was the issue of it? What terms were granted to the Turks? What privilege was granted to Wallachia and Moldavia? To whom was the passage of the Straits allowed? Who was bound to defray the expenses of the war?

3. Between whom did war rage in the Morea? Who reduced the fortresses in that country? Who checked the progress of Ibrahim? What kingdom was established in the east of Europe by the aid of France and England? What benefit was derived therefrom to the cause of liberty?

4. Who usurped the throne of Portugal? What sort of king did he declare himself? In whose favour was a premature attempt made? What were the consequences of failure? How were the insurgents treated?

5. By what occurrence had the close of 1828 been marked? What were the names of the criminals? How many did they murder? In what state were their victims when they put them to death? Who was found guilty and executed?

6. What events clouded the domestic annals of 1829? Who set fire to York Minster? What parts were saved, and what destroyed? What building at Glasgow was burnt down? What occasioned the inundation in Morayshire? What extent of country was covered with water? What damage was done? Were many lives lost? Was any thing done to relieve the poorer sufferers?

7. How was the session of 1829 closed? What was the reason? When

did it appear that the king's constitution was giving way ? When did the king die ? In what manner did he bear his illness ? What expression did he use at the last ? What was his age ? In what year of his reign did he expire ? From whom was he descended ? On what is the eulogium of his character founded ? What did the country pass through during his reign ? What was his private character ? In what element of virtue was he deficient ? What was the consequence of this defect ?

SECTION XVII.

1. THE Duke of Clarence, brother of George IV., ascended the throne on the 26th June 1830, affording by his good temper and affable manners the promise of a popular reign. After the usual ceremonies which attend the demise of the sovereign and the transfer of the crown, William perceived that the state of parties and the interest attached to certain great questions already agitated in parliament, would soon call his utmost attention to public business. The passing of the Catholic-relief bill, however just and necessary in the actual circumstances of the country, had greatly weakened the hands of ministers, who, by the relinquishment thereby involved of their former principles, had alienated from them some of the most powerful supporters of their government. Upon the meeting of the two houses on the 29th, several animated discussions took place, which, without turning on any important point, showed at least the temper of the Opposition, and indicated in a manner which could not be misunderstood, that the strength of the cabinet would be exposed to a severe shock in the following session. But an interval of repose and preparation was secured by the dissolution of parliament, which took place on the 24th July; writs being ordered for an election of new members, returnable on the 14th September.

2. The popular excitement which never fails to accompany the exercise of the elective franchise in England, was on this occasion not a little inflamed by a series of events which had come to pass on the continent. The French government, alarmed at the progress of a democratical spirit in the legislative body, issued several ordinances for restraining the liberty of the press, and altering the system of national representation. The populace of Paris, directed by certain leaders hostile to the court, flew to arms; and after a struggle with the military, which continued three days, they enabled a portion of the chamber of deputies, then in the capital, to assume the direction of affairs. Amid the shouts of the multitude, these revolutionary members deprived Charles X. of his sceptre, which they offered to Louis Philippe, the Duke of Orleans; excluded from their seats one-third part of the peers; and

declared by a formal deed that no descendant of the elder branch of the house of Bourbon should ever occupy the throne of France. This triumph of the Parisians over an armed force and an established government was hailed with delight by the popular party in most cities of Europe. The inhabitants of Brussels, for example, impatient of some local burdens, rose against the authorities of the place, obtained some advantages over the soldiers, and forthwith proceeded to attack the constitution itself.

3. These occurrences, which passed with uncommon rapidity and produced effects so momentous, failed not to awaken the sympathy of the people of England. In some places public meetings were held to pass resolutions applauding the spirit with which the Parisians had shaken off the yoke of a growing despotism; deputations were sent to congratulate them on their successful exertions; and subscriptions were raised to relieve the families of those individuals who had fallen or suffered in the contest. This ardent feeling on a topic so inflammatory was dreaded by the British ministers, while it was encouraged and approved by their opponents. The question of parliamentary reform, both parties were aware, would now be brought forward in a more prominent shape than ever; while the people, stimulated by recent examples, would, there was reason to apprehend, be less submissive than formerly to the voice of their representatives, if opposed to the desire for change. To these grounds of anxiety was added the unsettled state of the public mind in many parts of the kingdom, occasioned by low wages and the want of employment. The county of Kent, in particular, was the scene of very serious disturbances, which, though they partook not of a political character, might easily be converted into open insurrection, or even positive rebellion. It cannot therefore be surprising that the new parliament, which met on 26th October, should have encountered a powerful opposition from members elected under such circumstances. The Duke of Wellington, remarkable for the candour and openness of his mind, met all the expectations which had been formed on the subject of reform, by stating that "he had never heard or read of any measure, down to the present moment, which could improve the representation, or render it more satisfactory to the country at large; nor would he hesitate unequivocally to declare his opinion, that we possessed a legislature which answered all good purposes better than any which had been ever tried; and that if we had to frame a legislature for another country, his aim would be to form one which would produce similar results. Under such circumstances, he concluded, he was

not only unprepared to bring forward any measure of reform, but ready at once to declare, that so long as he held a station in the government, he should feel it his duty to resist any such measures when proposed by others."

4. This declaration soon produced the effects which, in the peculiar crisis of affairs, every one expected to follow. The popularity of the duke and his ministry received a blow from which it was not likely to recover; and his withdrawal from power was farther accelerated by an incident which, though insignificant in itself, created a deep impression among the citizens of London. It is usual for the sovereign, in the first year of his reign, to honour the Lord Mayor with his presence at the annual feast of the corporation; and his majesty had accepted the invitation to appear, accompanied by the queen, on the 9th November at Guildhall. Two days before the festival, a letter was received by the chief magistrate from Sir Robert Peel, stating that the king, following the advice of his ministers, had resolved to put off his visit to a future opportunity; and the reason given for this change of purpose was, that information recently received "gave cause to apprehend that, notwithstanding the devoted loyalty and attachment borne to the sovereign by the citizens of London, advantage would be taken of the nocturnal assemblage of multitudes to create tumult and confusion." In truth, the prime minister had incurred such a degree of popular odium, that his personal safety was exposed to much hazard; and it was not concealed that certain members of the common council, apprized of the attack meant to be made upon his Grace, had informed the government of the danger to which he would be exposed, if recognised as one of the attendants on his majesty. But the change of administration, though it could not have been much longer delayed, was finally decided by a vote on the civil list, which, on the 15th November, threw the tories into a minority; and next day the leading members of the cabinet in the two houses announced that, having tendered their resignation, they held office only until successors should be appointed. Earl Grey, who was called to fill the place vacated by Wellington, proceeded to form a ministry, which he selected partly from the whigs and partly from among those moderate tories who had adopted the sentiments of Mr Canning. Mr Brougham was created Lord Chancellor; Lord Althorp was made Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Melbourne was intrusted with the care of the home-office; the foreign department was committed to Lord Palmerston, and the colonies to Lord Goderich. After passing a regency bill,

providing against the demise of the crown, the two houses adjourned on the 23d December, not to meet again till the 3d February.

5. The foreign relations of the kingdom during this year had respect in the first instance to the revolution which had recently taken place in the Netherlands. A civil commotion originating in the riot at Brussels terminated in the expulsion of the Dutch sovereign, and the creation of a new kingdom in Europe. The crown of Belgium was first offered to the Duke of Nemours, the second son of Louis Philippe; but being declined by this prince, it was finally conferred on Leopold, who had continued ever since he became a widower to reside in England. Nor were the effects of these popular movements confined to the countries in which they took their rise. Similar disturbances alarmed some of the minor states of Germany; the Duke of Brunswick was driven from his dominions; and the public peace was for a time interrupted at Leipsic, Dresden, Hesse-Cassel, Hamburg, Berne, and Basle. It could not be expected that Poland, which had so many grievances to redress, and so many painful recollections to endure, would altogether escape the excitement incident to this new epidemic. An insurrection occurred at Warsaw, the streets of which were stained with the blood which flowed in a contest between the citizens and the Russian soldiers. Success encouraged the first efforts of the patriots, for Constantine, the emperor's brother, was compelled to retreat towards the frontier, where he awaited a reinforcement of troops. But, with means so unequal, the struggle could not be long protracted; the Poles, accordingly, after sustaining a siege, and losing many of their bravest leaders, were compelled to submit; and the survivors, who had incurred the guilt of rebellion, were in too many instances visited with the punishment of traitors. In Spain, a vain attempt was made by certain exiles, whose liberal principles had kindled the resentment of Ferdinand, to accomplish a revolution in that monarchy. Appearing in the field without either talents or resources, their efforts never went beyond the mere appearance of resistance; and at length, after exposing themselves and their cause to the bitterest ridicule, they sacrificed the love of freedom to a regard for their own personal safety. The triumphs of the French in Africa, and the negotiations which related to the new sovereignty of Greece, are not of sufficient importance to occupy any share of our attention; we shall therefore return to our own country, where interesting discussions on the principles of our mixed constitution excited the deepest interest among all classes of the people.

6. The adjournment having expired on the 3d February 1831, parliament met that day under the auspices of Earl Grey, who announced that the government had succeeded in framing a proposition on the subject of reform, which he hoped would be considered effective, without exceeding the bounds of a just and prudent moderation. On the 1st of March, accordingly, Lord John Russell, to whom the measure was intrusted in the house of commons, stated the outlines of the proposed bill; which comprehended, first, the disfranchisement, in whole or in part, of places which had hitherto returned members; secondly, the enfranchisement of other places which were not represented; and, thirdly, the extension of the franchise, in order to increase the number of electors in those places which were to be allowed to retain their existing privileges. The general result of the measure, it was said, would be to create a new constituency of not less than half a million, including about 40,000 for Ireland and 60,000 for Scotland, while the aggregate number of members returned would be diminished to the extent of sixty-two. On the 21st of March an amendment was proposed that the bill should be read that day six months, and was negatived only by a majority of one. Relying on this slender support, Lord John, on the 18th of April, moved the order of the day for a committee of the whole house; upon which General Gascoyne, one of the members for Liverpool, moved that the clause, of which the object was to diminish the number of representatives, should be cancelled. After an animated debate, which was adjourned till the following day, the motion was carried against ministers by a majority of eight; a defeat, on a point then deemed quite essential, which brought the cabinet to the resolution of dissolving parliament.

7. The events now related threw the whole country into a great degree of agitation, and in some parts gave rise to unseemly tumults. In London the populace vented their rage against those members of either house who were unfriendly to the bill, and especially against the Duke of Wellington, whose services to his country were for the time entirely forgotten. The result of the new election, proceeding under such circumstances, was favourable to ministers, who gained a considerable accession to the number of their adherents. Parliament assembled on the 14th of June, the Reform bill was again brought forward by Lord John Russell, who remarked that, with regard to the general features of the plan, they were essentially the same as those of the measure recently proposed; and as the slight alterations made were improvements, intended to carry its principles into effect, he would

not enter into details. The second reading was deferred till the 4th of July, when a warm debate followed, which, after continuing several days, terminated in favour of ministers; but so powerful did the opposition prove in committee, that the bill did not pass the lower house before the 21st of September. On the 3d day of October, this great measure was taken into consideration by the peers, who examined its bearing and weighed its probable effects with consummate ability. The majority of their lordships, alarmed by the important changes to which the constitution was to be thereby subjected, gave their voices against it; and on the division that followed the motion for the second reading, Earl Grey found himself in a minority of forty-one. In this crisis of political affairs the commons met and voted a resolution declaring their undiminished confidence in his majesty's government, an example which was followed by the corporation of London and many influential bodies throughout the kingdom. But the support granted to them in other places was not so creditable to their partisans as the expressions of trust and reliance now mentioned; for at Bristol, Derby, Birmingham, Bath, and Worcester, the most violent disturbances broke out, attended with the loss of much property and even of life. In consequence of these outrages, a proclamation was issued by his majesty in council, on the 2d of November, exhorting all classes of his subjects to unite in suppressing such tumults. Three weeks later a similar notice appeared in the Gazette, declaring political unions illegal, and warning all persons against entering into those combinations.

8. As the discussions on the Reform bill were extended into the following year, we shall pause until we have noticed certain other occurrences at home and abroad which attracted a large share of public attention in the course of 1831. France, which had set the example of popular agitation, did not escape the evils which usually result from such shakings of society. At Lyons, disturbances among the workmen were carried to such a height that a military force under Soult was sent thither to repress their seditious movements. The measures adopted by the marshal were of the severest description, and the punishment inflicted on the malecontents extended to the destruction of a large portion of their city. In the Netherlands, matters had been brought to a crisis by the acceptance of the crown on the part of Prince Leopold. The Dutch having marched an army into Belgium, had gained several advantages over their antagonists, when their progress was stopped by the advance of the French, whose policy led them to support the throne of the new king. To prevent a

general war, the great contracting powers, including England, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, again interposed; upon which Louis Philippe withdrew his troops. At a conference held by the diplomatic agents of the monarchies just named, attended also by an envoy from Paris, certain articles were framed for the settlement of this dispute, and declared to be obligatory on both parties. The Belgians readily acceded to the conditions of the arrangement, but the Dutch rejected them as at once impolitic and unjust; and hence several weighty matters remained undetermined. The insurrection in Spain had not, at the close of the year 1831, assumed a more decided form, nor advanced one stage towards the completion of its object. In Italy, the Austrian states, always impatient under the German yoke, expressed their dissatisfaction by some acts of hostility, which were severely checked by the local government. Nor were the Greeks more happy in the enjoyment of the popular rule to which, through the countenance of Great Britain and France, they had recently attained. Suspecting the fidelity of Capo D'Istria, their president, or eager to possess greater freedom than was consistent even with their new constitution, they put him to death by assassination, and relapsed into their wonted anarchy. This season witnessed also the inroad of the cholera into most of the northern countries of Europe. It had begun in India in the year 1817, and advancing gradually in a western direction, it made its appearance at Sunderland in the month of October. From that point it travelled southward towards the metropolis, which it reached early in the following year, and about the same period manifested its virulence in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh. It has been mentioned as a remarkable fact, that, though few districts escaped its ravages more or less, it visited no place which was situated more than three hundred feet above the level of the sea.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded George IV.? At what date did William IV. ascend the throne? What was the effect of the Catholic-relief bill? What took place upon the meeting of the two houses of parliament? At what time was parliament dissolved?

2. What was the state of the popular mind in England at this period? What took place in France? What was the conduct of the Parisian people? Who assumed the direction of affairs? What befell Charles X.? Who succeeded him on the throne? How was this revolution received in other parts of Europe? What took place at Brussels? What was the result?

3. What effect was produced on the people of England? What steps did they take to show their approbation? How was it viewed by the ministers? What other grounds of anxiety were there? What was the declaration made by the Duke of Wellington?

4. In what manner did the duke's declaration operate on the public mind? What incident occurred to diminish the popularity of his government? What was the purport of Sir Robert Peel's letter to the Lord

Mayor? Who informed ministry of the probable danger? What vote led to the resignation of the Duke of Wellington? Who succeeded him as prime minister? Who were appointed as his colleagues in office? At what period was parliament adjourned?

5. To what were the foreign relations of the kingdom directed? What occurred at Brussels? To whom was the crown of Belgium first offered? Who finally accepted it? Did disturbances extend to other states? What took place at Brunswick? What measures were pursued by the Poles? What was the result? Did any thing occur in Spain? What were the character and success of the patriots? Where did the arms of France obtain a triumph?

6. When did the new parliament meet? What did Earl Grey announce in the house of peers? Who brought forward the Reform bill in the house of commons? What were the outlines of the bill? What was the general effect? What was the proposed amount of the constituency in Ireland? What in Scotland? To what extent were members to be diminished? What amendment was proposed on 21st March? What was the issue? What did General Gascoyne propose? What followed? On what measure did the cabinet resolve?

7. What was the effect of this disappointment? Against whom did the populace direct their resentment? Did ministers gain or lose by the election? When did the parliament assemble? What were Lord John Russell's remarks as to the new Reform bill? When did the bill pass in the house of commons? When did the lords take it into consideration? What was the result of the first division? What expedient did the commons adopt? Where did disturbances take place? What was done in consequence by the king in council? What notice appeared in the Gazette?

8. What took place in France during 1831? What occurred in the Netherlands? What method was adopted for the settlement of the dispute between Belgium and Holland? How did matters proceed in Spain, and in Italy? What occurrence marked the conduct of the Greeks? What disease invaded Europe this year?

SECTION XVIII.

1. PARLIAMENT had assembled in the month of December, at which time the Reform bill, somewhat modified, was again submitted to the commons, by whom it was approved and passed through the second reading with a triumphant majority. After the usual adjournment the house met on the 17th January 1832, when the war of argument was once more renewed; and it was not till the middle of March that the labours of the committee were brought to a close. On the 26th the bill was carried to the house of peers, where it had to encounter an opposition hardly less violent than it sustained during the previous year. But on this occasion several of their lordships expressed their readiness to vote for the second reading, reserving their objections till the several clauses should come to be considered in committee; and, accordingly, when the house divided, ministers found that they had obtained a majority of nine. This symptom of increasing strength, however, did not deceive any one. On the 7th of May, when the bill was committed, an amendment was proposed by Lord Lyndhurst, to the effect that the enfranchisement of places which were to receive members should be

taken into consideration prior to the disfranchisement of such places as were to be deprived in whole or in part. In the division which followed this motion, Earl Grey was left in a minority of thirty-five. Nothing, it was now obvious, could secure success but a creation of peers; and this expedient he submitted to his majesty, coupled with the alternative of accepting the resignation of the whole cabinet. The king, after some hesitation, preferred the latter proposal, and immediately found himself deprived of a government.

2. This intelligence was no sooner spread abroad throughout the kingdom than it produced the greatest degree of excitation and disappointment. The house of commons set the example of opposition to the crown by voting an address to his majesty, expressing their deep regret at the projected change of ministers, and entreating him not to call to his councils any set of men who were not prepared to pass the Reform bill in its full extent. Meetings were held in all the principal towns in both divisions of the island; violent speeches were pronounced; and menaces were uttered by the leading orators, which were much too plain not to be understood as indicating a determination to employ physical strength for the accomplishment of their purpose.

3. When the king had resolved to accept the resignation of Earl Grey, he confided to Lord Lyndhurst the important duty of arranging the basis of a new government; declaring that an extensive reform in parliament was the main condition on which the cabinet must be formed. But this undertaking, it soon appeared, was quite impracticable. None of the tory leaders would accept office on the terms proposed; and accordingly, after a fruitless negotiation of seven days, the sovereign found himself reduced to the disagreeable necessity of soliciting the services of his late ministers. The earl, who was now empowered to make his own terms, refused to return to the duties of premier, except on the understanding, that by creating such a number of peers as might be deemed necessary, the king would enable him to carry the bill through the upper house. When this stipulation was made known, a large body of the lords, complying with the wishes of their royal master, withheld their presence during the remaining discussions. The majority in favour of the great measure being thereby rendered quite decisive, it was carried into law on the 7th of June, when the monarch announced his assent by commission. The bill for Scotland, which encountered little opposition, received the royal sanction on the 17th July; while that for Ireland reached the same conclusion on the 7th of August.

4. In the course of this year, the political troubles in Portugal seemed to have reached a crisis. Don Pedro having landed to secure the crown for his daughter, took possession of Oporto; but being disappointed in the co-operation which he had been led to expect, he was shut up within the walls by the adherents of his brother, who, besides bombarding the town, blockaded the entrance of the Douro. This state of things continued many months, till at length Miguel's fleet was destroyed by Admiral Napier, who commanded a squadron in the name of the young queen. This triumph soon led to others; the siege of Oporto was raised; Donna Maria was proclaimed in Lisbon; and a British minister was again appointed to that court. In the east the quarrel was renewed between the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt, which, but for the interposition of Russia, might have terminated in the dismemberment of the Turkish empire. The influence exerted by the Czar in composing the differences that had led to this appeal to arms, and the ascendancy in the councils of the Porte to which he had thereby attained, excited the jealousy of the other European powers, who could not shut their eyes to the consequences likely to ensue from the extension of his power to the shores of the Mediterranean. To watch the motions of the northern autocrat, and also, it was understood, to procure a mitigation of the severe lot to which an unsuccessful insurrection had reduced the Poles, Lord Durham was sent as ambassador to the court of Petersburg. Violent invectives meanwhile were pronounced in parliament against Russian ambition by certain orators, who seemed willing to hazard a general war for the maintenance of abstract principles. A similar policy was recommended in behalf of the Germanic states, some of which were supposed to have been deprived of rights, either inherent in their constitution or promised by the confederacy of the greater powers. The British government, without contesting the principles advocated by their liberal friends, questioned the expediency of any direct interference with foreign affairs; because, if they were not listened to, they must resolve either to endure the contempt which such neglect would imply, or to enforce the recommendation by a display of hostile measures. These reasons satisfied the majority of the house, and the cabinet were allowed to pursue the pacific course to which their interest as well as inclination were known to bind them.

5. Immediately after the Reform bill passed, the attention of the public was drawn to the registration of the new constituency, and other preparations for a general election. Parliament having been dissolved on the 3d December, writs

were issued, which were made returnable on the 29th of January 1833. The result of this appeal to the people was in general very favourable to the ministerial candidates. In almost all the boroughs success depended on the newly-created electors, who naturally gave their votes to that party by whose means they had procured their privileges; but, in a large proportion of the counties, conservative members were returned. In Scotland, the whigs obtained a distinguished triumph; for out of fifty-three representatives now allowed to this portion of the empire, not more than eight or nine were tories. In Ireland, however, the views of ministers were thwarted by Mr O'Connell, who denounced them as the enemies of his country, towards which he maintained, even in the structure of the Reform bill, they had acted with insult and injustice. On the 5th of February, the first session of the new parliament was opened by the king in person, of which Mr Mannors Sutton was elected speaker by a great majority—241 votes to 31. In his speech his majesty took a comprehensive view of our foreign and domestic relations, more especially the affairs of Holland, the charters of the Bank of England and of the East India Company, and the disturbed condition of Ireland. This last topic excited a considerable sensation in the house of commons, where O'Connell described the address to the throne as a bloody, brutal, and unconstitutional document. A bill founded upon it was nevertheless introduced by Earl Grey into the house of peers, and carried with little opposition; but its progress through the other branch of the legislature was much slower, and marked by a strong degree of party spirit. It was characterized by Mr O'Connell as a declaration of civil war; such a declaration as this country once put forth against America, though she had reaped from it nothing but discomfiture and disgrace; and, he added, that, after seven centuries of oppression, there would still be a call for blood in Ireland. He asserted that all the outrages which were perpetrated in his country must be laid to the door of the whigs, who had at all times been its bitterest enemies, and whose measures would drive every patriot in the land to labour for a repeal of the union. The bill, notwithstanding, was passed at the beginning of April; and on the 10th day of the same month, the lord-lieutenant issued a proclamation suppressing the political association denominated volunteers, and forthwith extended its provisions with good effect to all the disturbed districts.

6. Measures were adopted during the same period for the better government of the Irish church, and for the more equal division of its revenues. But a subject more interesting to

the cause of humanity came before parliament in the form of a debate on slavery as tolerated in the West Indies. On this question the minds of reflecting persons had been fixed with much anxiety, from the very opening of the session; and a hope was now very generally entertained that this dark stain on the statute-law of England would be speedily and for ever removed. The extent of the subject, and the many interests which it involved, naturally created a serious obstacle to an immediate adjustment of the contending rights of the owner and the slave. It was not, however, considered as a party question, or as putting to the test any great principle cherished by either side of the two houses as essential to their respective lines of policy. Hence the measure encountered less opposition than might have been expected, and it was accordingly passed into a law, which was to take effect in all the British colonies on the 1st day of August 1834. After that date the slave was to become an apprentice, bound to his master, on certain conditions, for six years, and upon the expiry of this period, to be placed in possession of entire and unlimited freedom. Nor, while humanity was thus consulted, was justice neglected, for the same Act provided that a sum of £20,000,000 should be distributed among the proprietors as a compensation for loss of service. The interests of the slave were farther secured by a clause in the bill which removed all restrictions on the teachers of Christianity, except such as are imposed on the ministers of religion in Great Britain.

7. This year was farther distinguished by the renewal of the Bank of England charter, and by that of the East India Company. The conditions annexed to the first of these grants were, that the bank should publish a monthly statement of its accounts; refund a portion of its capital; submit to a partial repeal of the usury laws; and pay the annual sum of £120,000 to the public, as an acknowledgment for its privileges. In return, its notes were made a legal tender, except at the bank itself and its branches, where gold can be demanded; all other banks were placed under regulations; and, to prevent an over-issue, were compelled to make a quarterly return of the amount of their notes in circulation. Greater difficulties attended the renewal of the Company's charter; but all the questions connected with it were at length determined, to the satisfaction of the country at large. It was regarded as no small advantage that a rich field was thereby opened to the enterprise of our merchants, more especially by putting an end to the monopoly of tea, an article now regarded as one of the necessaries of life. The intimate connexion which had so long subsisted between the commerce and the territory

of India under the direction of one body, was also brought to a close. The proprietors of stock being made dependent for their dividends on the revenues of the country placed under their care, have a greater inducement to promote its welfare, maintain good order, and encourage industry. Various changes were made in the Board of Control; every office under the Company was thrown open to British subjects without distinction; and a profitable employment has thus been obtained for capital which could not be beneficially used at home. Few sessions, indeed, could boast of more ample fruits than that of 1833; and, accordingly, when it was closed by the king in person, on the 29th August, he observed in his speech, not without good reason, that "it was not more remarkable for extended duration than for the patient and persevering industry which parliament had displayed in many laborious inquiries, and in perfecting the various legislative measures brought under its consideration."

EXERCISES.

1. In what month did parliament assemble in the close of 1831? What step was taken by the commons? On what day did the house meet in 1832? When was the Reform bill carried to the house of peers? What reception did it find there? What amendment was proposed by Lord Lyndhurst on the 7th May? What was the result of his motion? What expedient was submitted to his majesty by Earl Grey? And what alternative did the king adopt?

2. What effect did the news of Earl Grey's resignation produce? What course was adopted by the house of commons? State what took place in the various meetings which were held throughout the kingdom.

3. To whom was intrusted the duty of forming a new government; and what was the basis on which it was to be founded? Was the plan successful? What was the reason of the failure? To what necessity was the king reduced? What terms were conceded to Earl Grey? What conduct was pursued by the lords? On what day did the Reform bill receive the royal assent? When did the bills for Scotland and for Ireland reach the same conclusion?

4. What was the state of affairs in Portugal in 1832? State what befell Don Pedro. Who defeated Miguel's fleet? What followed this victory? Explain what occurred between the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt; and what feelings were excited among the European powers from witnessing the increased influence of the Russian emperor. Who was sent to watch the motions of the Czar? What measures were recommended by certain orators in parliament? What conduct did the government observe? Explain the reasons on which they justify their neutrality. Were they held satisfactory?

5. To what was the attention of the public drawn after the passing of the Reform bill? Was the result favourable to ministers? Explain the cause of their success. What was the issue of the election in Scotland? Were they equally successful in Ireland? State the reason why they were not. When did the new parliament meet? Who was chosen speaker? What were the chief topics in his majesty's speech? Repeat the remark of Mr O'Connell on the part of the address which alluded to Ireland? Who introduced the bill into the house of peers? Repeat the observations of O'Connell. When did the bill pass, and what step was taken by the lord-lieutenant of Ireland?

6. What was the object of the measures respecting the Irish church? What was the next subject submitted to parliament? What hope was entertained on the question of slavery? Was it made a party question?

What was the amount of compensation? What clause was introduced as to religion?

7. What charters were renewed during this session of parliament? What were the conditions submitted to by the bank? Explain the advantages granted in return. State the restrictions applied to other banks. What benefit arose from the renewal of the Company's charter? Was the connexion between commerce and territory still to continue? What regulation applied to the proprietors of stock? What other changes took place? What observation did the king make at the close of the session?

SECTION XIX.

1. ON the 4th day of February 1834, parliament again assembled, when his majesty, among a variety of important subjects calling for consideration, enumerated the reports about to be laid before both houses from the several commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of municipal corporations; into the administration of the poor laws; and into the ecclesiastical revenues of England and Wales.

The discussion on the Address in the commons was conducted with considerable animosity, owing to the part which Mr O'Connell thought proper to act against the ministers, who, he was not inclined to forget, were indebted to him for their accession to office. On the 22d of April, he made a motion, the object of which was to repeal the union between Great Britain and Ireland; maintaining at great length the incompetency of parliament to establish such a compact, and detailing the dishonourable means by which, according to his view, it had been accomplished. The chancellor of the exchequer, after an able reply, in which he enumerated the manifold advantages accruing to the latter country from the union, moved that an address should be presented to the sovereign, expressing the fixed determination of the commons to maintain inviolate the legislative connexion between the two integral parts of the empire. A similar view was taken of the subject by Sir Robert Peel, who, in the course of his speech, repeated Mr Canning's exclamation, "Repeal the union! re-enact the heptarchy!" He added, that the security of the United Kingdom depended on the union, without which England would be reduced to the condition of a fourth-rate power, and Ireland to the desolation of a wilderness. The motion was accordingly carried by a majority of 523 votes against 38. The lords having concurred unanimously in the same sentiments, the address was presented as the declaration of both houses to the king, who, in his answer, expressed the utmost satisfaction with the wisdom of their measures.

2. Parliamentary reform having been achieved, there was a strong desire throughout the public of Scotland to obtain burgh reform, or an amendment of the system of municipal

corporations. Some of these institutions were of very ancient date. It was usual for the early monarchs of Scotland to grant charters of incorporation to the towns, conferring on them privileges, in return for which they made payments to the royal revenue, or contributed to the defence of the country. The system was an advantage both to the king and to the people in checking the power of the nobility. When the barons had their castles and their armed retainers, all the humbler classes throughout the country required to be the vassals of some chief. It was only when these were associated together in towns that they became free, for here they were protected by walls, and had in their magistrates leaders of their own selection. In later times, however, no such protection was required, and the position of the burghs had greatly changed. Some that had been comparatively important had nearly disappeared, and others had outgrown their bounds—that is to say, they had extended far beyond the ground to which the original charters applied. Inverkeithing, in Fife-shire, now a mere village, had been at one time the capital of Scotland. Other royal burghs, such as Kintore with about half a dozen houses, and Inverury, had become still more insignificant. There were at the same time considerable towns which had no charters, and therefore no magistracy. Much dissatisfaction too was felt at the manner in which the magistrates and town councils were chosen. They no longer represented the community at large, the election having gradually passed into the hands of a few. The most usual system among them was called self-election—that is to say, those who were in office chose their successors. There was no control over the persons thus situated, and they were strongly tempted to misapply the public property.

A commission was appointed to inquire into the state of the corporations, which made a full report in 1835. In the meantime, two acts were passed for giving the election of the councillors to the ten pound householders—the same class who were constituted parliamentary voters by the Reform Act. The boundaries of the corporations were adjusted, and the number of magistrates was altered in some instances so as to bear a juster proportion to the population. Constitutions were at the same time given to the large towns which had not been royal burghs.

3. In the year 1834, some steps were taken by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland which exercised an important influence on her future history. The persons who endowed churches had generally kept to themselves and their representatives the right to present a minister from

among the properly qualified clergy when a vacancy occurred. In the various revolutions and changes which Scotland underwent, this right of patronage had become a sort of property which was bought and sold. There was always a large party who desired that patronage should be abolished, or that, at all events, the congregations or the church courts should be entitled to reject a person whom the patron desired to force on them against their will. In William the Third's reign an act was passed calculated to bring about its gradual abolition; but the statute was repealed by the British parliament in 1712, when patronage was fully restored.

From this time forward it had been the object of the opponents of patronage to alter the law. They believed that they could accomplish this through means of the church courts alone; and having a majority in the General Assembly in 1834, they passed the celebrated Veto Act, to prevent the intrusion of ministers on reclaiming congregations, whence they received the name of "Non-intrusionists." By this act, the clergyman whom any patron presented to a vacancy had an opportunity of preaching before the congregation. If after this a majority of the male heads of families in the congregation were opposed to his becoming their minister, the presbytery was to reject him. It remained to be seen how the courts of law would act in relation to this measure. Indeed the first steps towards a conflict between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities were taken before the end of the year, in the celebrated Auchterarder case. A presentation was issued by the patron on the 14th September. The presbytery applied the veto act, and the person presented was rejected. He appealed to the church courts, who confirmed his rejection; but the courts of law, on the other hand, found that it was incompetent in the church courts to enforce such regulations, as they were an indirect interference with the law of the land. In 1835, arose the Lethendy case, in which the civil courts interfered before the church courts had actually applied the veto act, and issued an interdict or prohibition against their applying it. This, however, was disregarded, and a contest arose, the particulars of which belong to a more recent period.

4. The affairs of Ireland continued to occupy a large share of attention in the lower house of parliament, where Mr O'Connell rallied around him a very active minority. A difference of opinion was created in the cabinet by a proposal to deduct a certain sum from the revenues of the Irish church, and to appropriate it to purposes of education and other national improvements. This led to the resignation of Mr Stanley and Sir James Graham, whose

example was immediately followed by the Duke of Richmond and the Earl of Ripon. Mr Spring Rice succeeded the first of these ministers in the colonial office, Lord Carlisle accepted the privy-seal, and Lord Auckland was appointed to the admiralty. While other measures relating to Ireland were under consideration, an incident occurred within the precincts of the cabinet, which at once thwarted their proceedings and deprived them of their head. It took its rise in the necessity of renewing the coercion bill, passed the previous session, for securing the peace of Ireland. Following the counsel of Marquis Wellesley, the lord-lieutenant, it was resolved to repeal all the provisions of the former act, with the exception of those clauses which related to the trial of offenders in certain cases by courts-martial. Among the restrictions to be retained was one which forbade public meetings of the people, because it was at such assemblages that they were usually furnished by demagogues with the stimulants to sedition and even insurrectionary violence. As this prohibition was extremely disagreeable to Mr O'Connell, it became a matter of expediency with ministers, who dreaded his persevering opposition to their general policy, to modify or withdraw it; and, in order to pave the way for this end, a correspondence was opened with Lord Wellesley by some individuals in high office, without the knowledge of the premier. The lord-lieutenant, accordingly, was induced to alter his opinion; and in a letter to Earl Grey, intimated that the unpopular clauses might be dispensed with, for that he no longer feared the excitement occasioned by the harangues of political orators, addressed to an ignorant and susceptible multitude. The cabinet was again divided; and the minority, consisting of Lord Althorp, Mr C. Grant, Mr Rice, Mr Ellice, and Mr Abercromby, expressed their approbation of the suggestions received from Dublin, though opposed to the fixed determination of their leader. Earl Grey declared that the bill without the clauses in question would be ineffectual, impolitic, and cruel; punishing the miserable victims of delusion, but letting those escape who, of late years, had supplied Ireland with fuel for agitation and disturbance. Acting upon these clear and impartial views, he introduced the bill into the house of peers, which, on the 7th of July, passed the committee without opposition or alteration. But it soon appeared that the intrigue which had produced the change of mind in Marquis Wellesley was not confined to the upper house. Mr Littleton, the secretary for Ireland, had also entered into a negotiation with O'Connell, with a view to purchase his forbearance by revealing the gracious designs of certain members of the gov-

ernment, and assuring him that the objectionable clauses would be omitted. It was mentioned that Lord Althorp among others was against these clauses, and that the ministerial influence in the house of commons was actually opposed to the proceeding of the prime minister himself in the other branch of the legislature. As the restrictions were all the while retained, Mr O'Connell, believing himself deceived, openly denounced what he viewed as the double dealing of the Irish secretary. Lord Althorp, whose private opinions were revealed, resigned office; and as Earl Grey could not carry on the affairs of the country without his aid, he also tendered his resignation, which was accepted.

5. Viscount Melbourne, secretary of state for the home-department, was, on the 18th of July, invested with the duties of first lord of the treasury, as successor to the venerable earl. He obtained the co-operation of Lord Althorp, who consented to resume his place as chancellor of the exchequer, and forthwith made known his resolution to introduce a new coercion bill, free from all the objections which had given dissatisfaction to the Irish party. Next day he fulfilled his promise by submitting his plan to the peers, who immediately found themselves engaged in an irregular but most vehement discussion. The Dukes of Wellington and Buckingham, the Earl of Wicklow, Lord Wharncliffe, and others, attacked the government in very pungent terms, declaring that, since the Revolution, no instance had occurred of such shameful inconsistency and tergiversation. The measure was notwithstanding approved by the commons, and, on the 29th, also passed the lords, though not without a strong protest signed by twenty-three of their number.

In the autumn of this year, it was resolved to offer some mark of personal respect in Scotland to the venerable statesman who had now retired after having taken the lead in events so memorable. Accordingly, in October, he was invited to attend a national festival to be held in Edinburgh. A great procession filled the streets, and a thousand gentlemen entertained Earl Grey at dinner in an edifice erected for the purpose. He was accompanied by Lord Brougham, Lord Durham, and other statesmen, and the opportunity was taken for throwing out important political views. This demonstration became remarkable from being followed by others of a like kind. Lord Durham, who had chosen the opportunity of the Grey festival for intimating his advocacy of further reform, was entertained in the same manner in the city of Glasgow, where also a banquet was subsequently given to Sir Robert Peel. In 1835, Mr O'Connell made a tour, in which

he was received by similar marks of attention in the principal towns; and he dined in Edinburgh with fifteen hundred people in the hall at Canonmills subsequently occupied by the assembly of the Free Church.

6. Amidst many other measures referring locally to England and to Ireland rather than to Scotland, which were the object of strong party discussion at this time, there was one which, though locally applicable only to England, was of the highest importance to the empire at large. We allude to the amendment of the law, originally passed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, for maintaining the old and relieving the indigent among the labouring class of the people. It was ascertained from the report of commissioners appointed to inquire into the operation of the poor-laws, that they were rapidly diminishing the value of property throughout the kingdom, and, at the same time, degrading the condition of those unfortunate persons who trusted to them for the supply of their wants. The greatest evil was found to spring from the practice of giving relief to paupers at their own dwellings, and that to such an extent as to place them in a situation of comfort. To remedy these inconveniences, it was proposed to intrust the working of the law, when suitably altered, to a board of commissioners, invested with such powers as would enable them to put a stop to the abuse of making up depressed wages out of the poor-rate; to deprive magistrates of the power of ordering out-door relief; and, especially, to simplify the law of settlement and removal. After considerable discussion in both houses, the bill for accomplishing these wise ends was passed on the 11th of August; and although the new system could not be brought into full operation without creating murmur and even occasioning some degree of privation, it is now admitted by all parties that the effects were ultimately most beneficial to the labouring class themselves. The other measures of domestic policy had a reference to the state of agriculture, the remission of the malt-tax, and the repeal of the corn-laws; subjects which were canvassed with great ability without producing any practical result. On the 15th of August, his majesty prorogued parliament, alluding with satisfaction to the important questions which, during a long session, had engaged their attention; more especially the poor-laws, and the establishment of a central court for the trial of offences in London and its neighbourhood. He lamented the unsettled state of Holland and Belgium; adverted to the termination of the civil war which had so long divided the Portuguese; and mentioned that the improved condition of affairs in the Peninsula had induced him to con-

clude with the King of the French, the Queen-regent of Spain, and the Regent of Portugal, the quadripartite treaty which still regulates the intercourse of these several monarchies.

7. The parliamentary campaign of 1834 did not pass without betraying symptoms of weakness on the part of the ministry. The retirement of Earl Grey, and the secession of his friends from the cabinet, rendered them less able to resist the attacks of the tories, and of the radicals who sided with the Irish members. The death of Earl Spencer, which called his son Lord Althorp to the upper house, led to its temporary dissolution; for the king, who is said to have entertained no affection for this cabinet, informed Lord Melbourne that he would not impose upon him the task of completing the official arrangements rendered necessary by the elevation of the chancellor of the exchequer. The Duke of Wellington, to whom application was made, recommended that the government should be intrusted to Sir Robert Peel, who, at that period, happened to be engaged in a continental tour. On the 9th of December, he arrived in England, and on the same day, having obtained an audience of the king, accepted the office of premier. Lord Lyndhurst was already placed on the woolsack as chancellor; the Duke of Wellington took upon him the charge of foreign affairs; the Earl of Rosslyn became president of the council; Lord Wharncliffe had confided to him the privy-seal; Mr Goulburn was raised to the home-department; and Lord Aberdeen to the colonies. The navy was put into the hands of Earl de Grey, and the ordnance into those of Sir George Murray. The Earl of Haddington went to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, carrying with him Sir Edward Sugden as chancellor, and Sir Henry Hardinge as chief-secretary. It soon appeared that this change in the government was premature, and founded on a very unstable foundation. A new parliament met on the 19th of February 1835, when, on the election of a speaker, the ministerial candidate, Sir Charles Manners Sutton, was rejected by a majority of ten, in favour of Mr Abercromby. This election was watched with great anxiety and interest by the public, for it was known that it would at once show whether the tories could hold office. Sir Robert Peel sustained a similar defeat on an amendment proposed to the address presented by the house to his majesty; the Opposition carrying their measure by seven votes in an assembly of 625 members. The Opposition in parliament were aided by their friends without, and large meetings were held in Edinburgh and other places, where resolutions were passed condemning the dismissal of the Melbourne cabinet. The unpopularity of the tory, or as it was now generally

called the conservative party, was increased in Scotland by some discoveries having been made and published about the employment of government spies among the manufacturing population of the west during the agitation for reform in 1817. Various matters of detail were allowed to pass in Parliament with little resistance, as being necessary to the maintenance of the public service; but on Monday, the 30th of March, Lord John Russell brought forward his celebrated motion on the Irish Church Establishment in the form of a resolution, that "the house should resolve itself into a committee to consider respecting the temporalities of the Church of Ireland." This motion led to a debate which continued four nights; and when the house divided, it was found that the numbers were 322 in favour of it, and 289 against it. On the evening of the 4th of April, Lord John again moved that "it is the opinion of this committee, that any surplus which may remain, after fully providing for the spiritual instruction of the members of the Established Church in Ireland, ought to be applied to the general education of all classes of Christians." This was the famous "appropriation" question, which was the means of replacing the Melbourne administration in power.

8. On the 8th of April, Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington announced in their respective houses that their government was at an end; finding it impossible to carry on the business of the country in the face of a majority of the national representatives. On the 18th of the same month, Viscount Melbourne announced in the house of peers that he was reinstated as first lord of the treasury, and that a new ministry was already formed. Lord Palmerston was made secretary for foreign affairs; Lord John Russell was appointed to the home-department; Mr Charles Grant (afterwards Lord Glenelg) to the colonies; Lord Auckland to the admiralty; Mr Spring Rice was nominated chancellor of the exchequer; the Marquis of Lansdowne was chosen president of the council; the Earl of Mulgrave was selected as viceroy of Ireland, whither he was to be accompanied by Lord Plunkett as chancellor, and Lord Morpeth as secretary; and Mr John Archibald Murray was named lord advocate of Scotland. The premier did not conceal, that in forming his administration he had encountered difficulties, some of them of a severe and mortifying nature. He added, that he meant to proceed on the same principles on which his former government was based, still regarding them as safe, prudent, and truly efficient. Being questioned as to the footing on which he stood with Mr O'Connell and his followers, he replied that he knew not

whether he was to have his assistance, or to encounter his opposition, as he had taken no steps to secure his alliance. The new appointments to office having created several vacancies in the house of commons, partial elections took place, in some of which the ministers were rejected. Lord John Russell, who had been recently returned by the constituency of the southern division of Devonshire, again offered himself to their choice, but they gave the preference to Mr Parker, a conservative candidate, whom they sent to parliament by a great majority.

When the business of the session was resumed, it appeared that ministers meant to confine their exertions to measures of municipal reform in England and the affairs of the Irish church. In order to create the surplus contemplated by the appropriation clause, it was resolved to suppress a considerable number of Irish benefices, and to make various changes in the distribution of the revenue. The bill, after much discussion, received the sanction of a majority; but as the lords objected to the extinction of so many livings, the ministers found it expedient to abandon it altogether.

9. The session of 1835 was rendered memorable by the circumstances attending an application made to government for the grant of an annual sum to the Church of Scotland, with the view of enabling the General Assembly to prosecute their plan for increasing the number of places of worship throughout that country. A commission was appointed to inquire into the actual condition of the several parishes as to the means of religious instruction; but as the members constituting this body were not thought favourable to the measure, the clergy addressed a remonstrance to his majesty's ministers on the subject. Among other things they stated that, whereas from the commissioners being authorized "to inquire generally into the opportunities of religious worship, the means of religious instruction, and the pastoral superintendence afforded to the people of Scotland, the commission itself may be and has been interpreted as at variance with the principles and polity of the established church, and as calculated to weaken or overthrow it." The reason assigned for this conclusion was, that "when-ever religious instruction and pastoral superintendence are found to a certain extent afforded by any sect or denomination whatever, then the services of an established church are not required and may be dispensed with. On these grounds the General Assembly publicly and solemnly protest against whatever has such tendency, and declare that they consider it to be the sacred duty of the legislature to support and protect the national church, and to secure accommodation and

religious instruction to the people of Scotland, so that they may attend regularly upon divine ordinances, and profit by the pastoral exertions and superintendence of its ministers." The government, turning a deaf ear to this expostulation, persevered in their plan on the general principles they had assumed; and wherever application was made for church-accommodation, a previous inquiry was instituted respecting the actual means which that district already enjoyed.

The time of the house of commons was at this period much occupied by discussions on Irish questions. A motion was also made for introducing the vote by ballot into the election of members of parliament. The debates on the agricultural question were resumed, without leading to any practical result. A similar remark applies to sundry attempts made towards the close of the session for diminishing taxation or changing its objects. Except in connexion with the grant to the West India slave-owners, Canada was by its dissensions the only colony which claimed the attention of the legislature. On the 10th of September, his majesty prorogued both houses by a speech, in which he expressed great satisfaction that he was now enabled to relieve them from farther attendance; that he enjoyed the prospect of peace with all Europe; that he had entered into several treaties for the suppression of the slave-trade; and that Ireland was so much pacified as to admit of a more lenient system of rule.

10. Parliament met again on 14th February 1836, and was chiefly occupied with inquiries as to Orange lodges—the name given to some associated bodies in Ireland, whose members were strongly opposed to the whig party, though their name of Orange was derived from King William the Third, who had been Prince of Orange. The attention of parliament was again long occupied with these and other Irish questions. To counterbalance in some degree this waste of time, a bill was passed for the commutation of tithes in England, as also another for the registration of births and deaths, and for the celebration of marriages. A bill was at the same time brought in to extend the registration system to Scotland, but it was not passed. The reports of a commission appointed to inquire into the revenue and duties of the English church being prepared, the usual steps were taken to legislate on these points; making a new distribution both of the income and of the territory included in certain dioceses. The usual prorogation took place on the 20th of August.

Parliament assembled on the 31st January 1837, when his majesty addressed the two houses through the lord chancellor, one of his commissioners. The measures in which the

cabinet felt the deepest interest, as being most likely to rouse the opposition of their antagonists both within and without the walls of parliament, were the municipal corporations of Ireland, an adjustment of the tithe question, and a legal provision for the Irish poor.

To accomplish these objects, bills were brought into the lower house at successive periods in the course of the session, and carried through the usual stages, though not without an animated discussion on the main provisions. Various motions made by individual members on subjects of special interest, afforded rather an opportunity of discussing abstract points than of accomplishing any practical benefit. For example, there were debates on the propriety of abolishing imprisonment for debt; on the advantages of repealing the Septennial Act, and of discontinuing the practice of voting by proxy in the House of Lords; on the wisdom of subjecting landed property to the same law of inheritance as is now applicable to personal wealth; and, finally, on the justice of securing to authors a more certain and extended benefit in the fruits of their literary labours. None of these discussions led at the time to any legislative enactment; but as they were not introduced by ministers, the failure did not reflect any discredit on the government. It was obvious, however, that their party was not acquiring strength; for they could not command more than a majority of five on a bill brought in by Mr Spring Rice, of which the object was to relieve parishioners from the burden of the church-rate, and to provide a substitute by a new mode of leasing ecclesiastical lands. Finding themselves so indifferently supported, the cabinet abandoned the scheme without any further effort.

11. The situation of the king, who, from an early period of the season, was known to labour under a dangerous disease, kept alive the concern of all classes of the people. But lest the affairs of state should be impeded, the worst features of his case were concealed from the public; and though no other termination than a fatal one could be anticipated to his lingering illness, this catastrophe was not imagined to be so near as it actually proved. On the 20th of June the monarch breathed his last, leaving to his niece Victoria a throne which for wealth, splendour, and power, surpasses all others on the face of the earth. The character of William IV., though it comprehended none of the elements of greatness or high talent, was regarded in a favourable light by the general body of the people. It was, fortunately for his personal comfort, no longer the notion that a monarch must always be surrounded with pomp and personal grandeur. He loved the ease of private life, and his frank disposition and kindness of heart made a deep impression on

the minds of the people. While he appeared before them in the attributes of a private gentleman rather than in those of a distinguished prince, his memory is cherished with a more ardent affection than has fallen to the lot of some greater rulers. He had the happiness to see his country advancing in wealth, literature, science, and in all those practical improvements to which the arts can minister. Scotland, in particular, enjoyed a full share in all these advantages. Her manufactures were extended; her commerce was enlarged; mechanical inventions were everywhere introduced to facilitate labour or to render it more productive; while the fine arts and the education of the people were rapidly increasing, for her great cities rivalled each other in the magnificence of their buildings and in the progress of their taste.

The railway system, which has come so largely into operation in later times, had just begun towards the end of his reign. Several lines had been made, but they generally used horse-power, and it was only on that from Dundee to Newtyle, and perhaps on a few other short portions of railway, that steam was employed in Scotland as a moving force. Several bills had been passed, however, to extend the system. The nation had enjoyed a long peace—there was every reason to presume that it would remain unbroken, and the community in general appeared to be flourishing.

EXERCISES.

1. On what day did parliament assemble? Mention the topics of the king's speech. In what spirit was the discussion on the address conducted? What motion was made by Mr O'Connell? Who opposed it? Repeat the words and arguments of Sir Robert Peel. What majority was there in favour of the address?

2. What other change was sought after the reform bill was carried? Give an account of the origin of the Scottish burghs or municipal corporations. What abuses were they considered liable to? What remedies were afforded by government?

3. When did a celebrated event in the General Assembly take place? What was the state of the law as to patronage? Describe the veto act. From what source did difficulties and disputes arise as to its working?

4. What proposal was made respecting Ireland? Were the cabinet unanimous as to that measure? What was the result? Name the members who retired, and those who filled their places. What was resolved with respect to the Irish coercion bill? What restriction gave offence to Mr O'Connell? What steps were taken to conciliate him? What effect did this produce in the cabinet? Repeat the declaration of Earl Grey. What disclosure was made by Mr Littleton? What was said as to Lord Althorp? Who resigned office in consequence?

5. Who succeeded Earl Grey as prime minister? Whose co-operation did he obtain? Who opposed the new coercion bill in the house of peers? When did it pass? What compliments were paid to three celebrated statesmen?

6. In what great measure were the cabinet successful? What light was obtained from the report of the commissioners on the English poor laws? What method was proposed to remedy the evils there set forth? When

did the bill pass? State the other measures of domestic policy. When was parliament prorogued? What were the chief subjects of his majesty's speech?

7. What symptoms were betrayed by the ministry during the session of 1834? To what was their weakness ascribed? State the circumstance which led to the dissolution of the cabinet. Who was the person applied to by the king to form a new ministry? Whom did he recommend as premier? On what day did Sir Robert Peel arrive in England? Who held the offices in the new cabinet? When did parliament meet? Who was elected speaker, and by what majority? On what point did Sir Robert Peel sustain his next defeat? What motion did Lord John Russell bring forward on 30th March? How long did the debate continue, and how was the question decided? Repeat the motion made on the 4th April by Lord John. What was it called, and what was its effect?

8. On what day did the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel resign? What reason did they give for this step? When did Lord Melbourne announce the formation of a new ministry? Name the new members. What principles did the premier avow? State his reply in regard to Mr O'Connell. Who was returned member for South Devon? What were the leading measures of government? What bill were ministers obliged to abandon?

9. What application was made by the Scottish Church? What was done by government? Did this satisfy the clergy? State the grounds of their dissatisfaction. Give the substance of the protest of the General Assembly. What next engaged the attention of parliament? When was parliament prorogued, and what were the main subjects mentioned in the king's speech?

10. What was the nature of the associated bodies in Ireland which occupied the attention of parliament? What bills were passed? What measure was introduced affecting Scotland? What changes took place in the Church of England? In what measures did the cabinet feel the deepest interest? What course did ministers take to forward their views? What questions were discussed in the house of commons? What was the majority in favour of ministers on the church rate bill?

11. In what state was the health of the king? When did he expire? Who succeeded him? What was his character? Describe his disposition and manners? Did the country advance in wealth and learning during his reign? What progress was made by Scotland? What new system of travelling began to come into operation?

SECTION XX.

1. QUEEN VICTORIA, who now succeeded to the throne of the British empire, was the only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, the brother of the two preceding monarchs, and the fourth son of George the Third. On her accession, the state of Hanover, which had been connected with the monarchs of Britain since the reign of George I., ceased to be so. The succession to that throne was on a different principle from the succession to the throne of Britain, and the next heir to it was William the Fourth's brother, Prince Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland.

The accession of a young queen was a novel event, which greatly interested the country at large. It gave stability to the government, from a disinclination throughout the country,

and among all parties in the state, to disturb so interesting a reign at its commencement. The circumstance that a female, just eighteen years old, should quietly ascend a throne which in former times had been often fought for and surrounded by turbulence and crime, was a remarkable instance of the steadiness of our institutions, and the systematic course into which the progress of the constitution had brought them. In Scotland especially a contrast could not fail to be made between this undisturbed accession, and that of the unhappy Queen Mary; and it was seen that, much as the union had benefited England by pacifying a turbulent neighbour, it had conferred still greater advantages on Scotland.

2. According to the usual practice on the demise of the crown, parliament continued sitting only long enough to wind up the business before it. The session had not been one of great changes. But the laws with which the legislature was occupied at the time of the queen's accession were of considerable interest and importance, being part of a series of measures for the amelioration of the criminal law which had been in progress for several years. It was too much the opinion of our ancestors that severity only was necessary to make punishment effective. If a fine were insufficient to repress a petty offence, they adopted imprisonment. If that were insufficient, they added whipping or the pillory. If it was found that the crime was still committed, they transported the offender; and if transportation was still insufficient, they brought him to the scaffold. Housebreaking and robbery were almost invariably punished with death, as also forgery, sheep-stealing, and wilful fire-raising, even when a man burned his own barn situated in a lonely place where the flames could not communicate with any other property. Trifling thefts and acts of violence were sometimes also punished with death. The country was overrun with idle wanderers and lawless persons, and it was supposed that they might be suppressed by such severity. Thus, by an old act, people charged as vagrants or sturdy beggars were to be seized and subjected to imprisonment with hard labour. If they persisted in their occupation, they were liable to be scourged,—to have their ears bored or nailed to the town gallows; and if all these measures failed, to be executed. Such sanguinary laws, however, counteracted themselves. The people were brutalized by the sight of violence. Witnesses would not give information, and jurymen would not convict when life was to be forfeited for a small offence. In the case of forgery especially, the crime was never so frequent as when executions were numerous. It was generally committed against individuals by their relations or confidential clerks,

whom they could not find it in their heart to bring to the gallows, and thus it was often hushed up. During the ten years preceding the accession of Queen Victoria, measures had been from time to time passed for improving the criminal code. Some kinds of forgery were still, however, capitally punished; and it was a pleasing omen, that among the first legislative enactments to which the youthful queen gave the royal assent, was the completion of this system of amelioration, by the abolition of the punishment of death for forgery. At the same time transportation was substituted for death, as the punishment for rioting and violently assisting in smuggling. The usury laws, which made it punishable to take interest at the rate of more than five per cent., were at the same time modified. On the 17th of July, parliament was prorogued by the queen in person, and next day it was dissolved.

The elections to the new parliament were attended with much excitement and party zeal; for it was evident that every year brought the contending parties nearer to a balance, where a few elections on one side or other would tell in the house, and a few votes influence an election. The result, however, was still to give a working majority when parliament reassembled on the 15th of November.

3. At the beginning of the year 1838, a criminal trial took place which caused a very distressing exposure of tyrannical practices committed by combinations of workmen. In a suburb of Glasgow, a working man was passing along the street with his wife on a Saturday night, making the small purchases to supply their frugal household for the next day, when he was shot dead by some ruffians, who stealthily approached him from behind. When the officers of justice made their inquiry as to this affair, it appeared that the unfortunate individual had become odious to his fellow-workmen, the cotton spinners, by agreeing to work at less wages than they chose to accept. This led to farther inquiry, and gradually it was discovered that there had long existed in Glasgow, as well as in many other manufacturing towns, a mysterious body, the names of whose members were not even known to the workmen themselves, but who assumed an entire and despotic authority over them. It appeared that this body dictated to all the spinners where and how they should work,—how many apprentices should be permitted to learn their trade,—and especially what wages should be paid to them. They levied heavy contributions upon the workmen, and would sometimes, without any cause assigned, order them in thousands at a time to cease from working, be the consequences what they might to themselves and their

families. When any of them refused to obey the orders so issued, they were immediately visited by some calamity. Many of them were attacked and brutally mutilated; others had vitriol thrown upon them; and in one or two instances even murder had been committed. All this had been going on in the heart of society for years; and it was so systematically managed, that the body in question—the committee of the union, as it was called—had funds at its disposal, with which it sent out of the country any of the spinners who were in danger of being convicted of the crimes so committed.

It is now necessary to explain how it was that the spinners submitted to this tyrannical power. Their trade is not a difficult one, and it would not naturally be very highly paid. But they sometimes contrived by means of their strikes to obtain high wages, for each of them kept several other workers in motion, who could do nothing when he was idle. Thus when eight hundred cotton spinners in Glasgow struck work, seven thousand other people whose employment depended on theirs were at the same time thrown idle. When the cotton spinners therefore were united together they could say, Pay us the wages we demand, or the mill shall be stopped and thousands of people thrown idle and driven to depredation and misery. It was sometimes impossible to resist a demand so made. When it was refused, and the spinners stopped work, they lived on the money that had been raised among them while they were employed, but the others begged, or starved, or stole. The misery thus created was incalculable. It was satisfactory to find that the authors of all this wickedness did not profit by it in the end. They ruined some of their employers, and others took their money elsewhere, so that many of the cotton spinners themselves were reduced to extreme poverty. After the murder which caused their exposure, five of their body were tried in Edinburgh, charged with assault, fire-raising, and murder. The trial lasted eight days, and excited great interest and surprise in the public mind, as an instance of the crimes which may be committed by men under the influence of a selfish love of gain. It was impossible to prove distinctly who had perpetrated the murder, but they were convicted of the other offences and transported.

4. But more pleasing events occurred in this year, and among them were unequivocal indications of the rising wealth and greatness of the country in the progress of scientific and public works. The railway system, which had begun in 1829, was becoming sensibly felt by the inhabitants of Scotland, although none of the great Scottish lines had yet been opened, or indeed commenced. The session of parliament was,

however, memorable in the history of our railway legislation from the passing of the act for establishing the earliest of the great Scottish lines, that between Edinburgh and Glasgow. Steam navigation was making great progress, and rendering accessible the solitary shores of distant Highland lochs. The vast district along the north-west coast of Scotland, full of long mountainous promontories and deep bays or sea-lochs, thus changed its position, and from being only open to the adventurous traveller on foot or on horseback, was frequented every summer by multitudes of gay tourists, passing thither in the steam-ships which swarm in the Frith of Clyde. The year 1838 witnessed a great improvement in the steam communication of this country with distant parts of the world. On the 8th of April, the Great Western sailed from Bristol to New York, and proved the capacity of steam vessels to accomplish voyages over great oceans. Arrangements were at the same time making rapid progress for perfecting the system of steam communication with India, by crossing the isthmus between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. It was among the other propitious events of the year, that, in virtue of the emancipation act, slavery ceased throughout the British dominions on the first of August.

The year 1839 saw the origin of several political movements, some of which have since produced great changes, while others have gone to decay or become unfruitful. It was now that the agitation for the repeal of the corn laws acquired its vigour. The act of parliament containing the then existing corn laws was passed in 1828. It laid a tax on grain imported from abroad. The duty was levied in terms of what was called a sliding scale, the avowed object of this arrangement being to lay a heavy duty on grain when it was cheap, and a light duty when it was dear, in order that it might not prevent importation in periods of scarcity. Thus, whenever the price of wheat was above 73s. a-quarter in this country, the duty on foreign wheat was only a shilling; but when it sunk below 61s. a-quarter, then the duty was to be 25s. 8d.; and was to increase a shilling with every shilling that the price decreased. The effect of this was, that unless there was a scarcity at home, foreign wheat could not be bought for less than 86s. per quarter, or 10s. 9d. per bushel.

5. It was long maintained that this system was essential to the prosperity of the country. It was said that agriculture must be protected, as it was the source from which the wealth of the community arose, since the agricultural population were the best customers of the merchants and manufacturers. It was asserted that the system tended to increase cultivation

at home, and thus rendered us independent of foreigners, who would otherwise drain away all our money in the purchase of their grain, and that it gave encouragement to agricultural labour, which was the best kind of employment for the working classes. On the other hand it was maintained, that it was no advantage to the merchant and manufacturer to have increased custom from the agriculturist if he paid for it in dear food. It was denied that the purchase of foreign grain would be a loss, since, even if it were paid for in gold, that gold could only be obtained by selling our manufactures in the countries where there were gold mines. It was said that while there were abroad large districts fruitful in corn which the people could not consume, and our manufacturers were producing clothes which they could not sell, if the trade were open the naked serf who grew the corn would gladly exchange it for the manufactures of our starving artisans. It was also maintained that the system even injured the agricultural tenant, since it held out to him a false hope of protection which he could not enjoy, and created a fluctuation of prices which often ruined him. Many statistical facts too were brought forward to show that our manufacturing exports were falling off because the countries from which we would not buy grain were beginning to manufacture for themselves. Such were the views promulgated by a new party, whose aim it was to stand apart from either of the other two great political sections, the whigs and the tories, and to push forward the one question of the repeal of the corn laws. The whig government were not hostile to the principle of free trade, but at the same time they did not adopt it as a ministerial measure. It was made what is called an open question, in which each member of the cabinet might vote as he pleased without compromising his colleagues. The discussion in parliament was begun on the 19th of February, when Mr Villiers moved, that evidence should be heard at the bar of the house on the subject of the corn laws, and their unfavourable effect on the industry and prosperity of the country. The motion was lost by 361 to 172. It was strongly opposed by Sir Robert Peel; but it was observed that his opposition did not rest so much on a repudiation of the principles of free trade as on the doubts which he threw on the statements made by the other speakers about the trade and manufactures and the general prosperity of the country. There was present as a listener to that debate one who had afterwards the chief merit in carrying conviction to the government of the day and the House of Commons on the views which had in 1838 so few supporters in parliament. A deputation of gentlemen, chiefly from the manufacturing districts, had gone

to London, for the purpose of aiding the cause of corn law repeal, and among them was Richard Cobden, a calico-printer in Manchester, who, though still not far advanced in life, had distinguished himself by some able pamphlets on matters connected with trade and industry. He now devoted himself entirely to the furtherance of free trade—with what success we shall hereafter see.

6. The political party called chartists began at this time to assume a prominent and even formidable aspect. For at least half a century there had been a body going farther than the whigs, and generally calling themselves radical reformers, from the Latin word *radix*, a root, because they considered that they went to the very root of the question. The reform bill was a measure so unexpectedly broad, that it obtained almost universal popularity among reformers, and either satisfied or silenced the radicals. Soon after it had passed, however, they naturally reverted to their own peculiar opinions, and made themselves heard as a party distinct from the whigs. Still they had not united themselves by any one specific common object. Some of them demanded universal suffrage, which was generally understood to mean the extension of the right of voting for a member of parliament to every male person who had passed his twenty-first year. Some politicians were held to belong to this party because they wished to give every householder a vote; others because they wished the qualification of voters to be reduced from £10 to £5; and others because they wished to include those only who could read and write. Another body, who were sometimes called radicals, desired nothing more than the vote by ballot. This term was derived from the French word *ballotte*, applied to a ball used for voting by being dropped into a particular hole. The balls were afterwards counted, and the vote carried according to the number, without any one knowing how his neighbour had voted. Vote by ballot, therefore, just meant voting in secret, which the supporters of the plan maintained would counteract bribery, intimidation, and any other improper interference with the interest or privileges of electors.

The term chartists was applied to those who specifically professed to adopt the principles of a document called "The People's Charter." This document was prepared in 1838 by six members of the House of Commons, and six members of a body called "The London Working Men's Association." It contained six "points" or prominent objects. These were, 1st, Universal suffrage, according to the account already given of it. 2d, Vote by ballot. 3d, Annual parliaments—that is to say, that each parliament should only last for a

year. 4th, Equality of electoral districts, or an arrangement by which each member should have as nearly as possible the same number of constituents. 5th, The abolition of the law which requires that a member of parliament should be possessed of a certain amount of property—a law which does not extend to Scotland. 6th, The payment of members by a fixed salary. Some of these objects in a modified shape had supporters here and there among all classes of the public, but very few of the middle and educated classes adopted the charter as a whole, and it had very slight support in parliament. It contained, however, much to fascinate the uneducated, and especially the young. Money was collected, by means of which newspapers were supported, and individuals, some of them possessing considerable talent, were employed to travel over the country and address meetings in favour of the charter. By this means the chartist leaders were able to send up to parliament a gigantic petition containing a million and a quarter of signatures. Meanwhile the leaders kept their followers in continual agitation. Peaceful neighbourhoods were disturbed by assemblages held at night, where torches were lighted and firearms discharged. When public meetings were held for any particular purpose, the chartists went to them in a body, and if they were not numerous enough to outvote the other parties present, they were at least able by clamour to prevent them from transacting business. They made some attempts, however, the result of which showed that they did not possess the confidence of the working classes in general. They proposed that there should be a cessation of work until the charter was granted, and actually fixed upon a day when the whole country was to strike work for a month, to be called “the sacred month;” but their mandate had no farther effect than to throw a few men idle for a time, and to decrease the amount of money in the savings banks. They held a convention in London, in the hope that it would supersede the imperial parliament. It was attended by delegates who professed to represent towns and districts, and who put after their names the letters M. C. for member of convention, as members of parliament add M. P. But in the great world of London this body failed in attracting much notice or curiosity; even its friends became ashamed of it, and it gradually disappeared.

7. In the meantime, some restless spirits among the chartists grew tired of mere speaking and agitation, and called for action. They proposed to have recourse to violence, and were called the “physical force” chartists, while those who desired to acquire their ends by constitutional means

were called "moral force" men. This created a division in the body, which alienated its most sensible and respectable members from the rest of the party. Unfortunately there was considerable distress among the manufacturing districts, and some people, through ignorance or design, taught the working classes that it was the duty and function of the state to provide them with sufficient wages. Many of them were too ignorant to know how impossible it is for parliament or government to regulate such matters, since every man must just be content to get the money value of his work, whatever that may be. But the notion that their condition could be thus improved was of course a very attractive one, and they demanded that the legislature should give them what they called "a fair day's wage for a fair day's work." Their dislike was not so much directed against the aristocracy in general as against the capitalists. They considered that their employers made money at their cost instead of by their own industry and skill, forgetting that unless there were men of enterprise and capital, whose property is protected, there would be much less work and wages than there are. They tried to get power by various impracticable means, such as a system of exclusive dealing, by which they were to buy only from the friends of their cause; but they found the laws of political economy too strong for them, and the merchant who provided good and cheap commodities could not be driven out of the market.

It was observed, however, that amidst all their recklessness and folly, and while they vainly believed that they were powerful enough to do anything, the good features of the British character were still perceptible among these men. Their conduct was not sanguinary or treacherous—indeed many of them had the best intentions of benefiting their species. Their acts were often more ludicrous than mischievous. As it was a favourite maxim with them that they were entitled to their share of all things, they sometimes went in a body with an indefinite view of taking possession of some gentleman's estate, and if allowed to go through it without molestation they generally contented themselves with an orderly procession round the grounds, and went away satisfied with having so far enjoyed their rights. An incident occurred which might have shown them how impossible it was that ignorant masses without discipline could combat with the skill and science which direct civilized institutions. A party of them proceeded to a railway train, and insisted on being gratuitously conveyed in it. Their desire was acceded to; but in the middle of the journey the carriages in which they sat

were detached from the rest of the train, and they were reduced to the alternative of remaining in a dangerous position upon the line, or of making a wearisome journey homeward.

8. The government, watching the chartist movement, resolved to act with caution. To protect the peaceful inhabitants of the country from alarm, a proclamation was issued against the torchlight meetings by night, "warning and commanding all persons to desist from such assemblies at their peril." It was evident that a collision must soon take place in some shape or other. In Scotland, though there were many apprehensions, no outrage of any important kind had taken place, but in England formidable acts of violence occurred, and some manufactories were burned down. The convention, which was a moveable body, had transferred its sittings to Birmingham. Owing to this circumstance, the town early in July came to be in a manner in possession of a riotous mob. A party of the London police were sent by railway to disperse them, but they were not overpowered until they were threatened by a body of dragoons. Some of the leaders of the chartists were captured in immediate connexion with the Birmingham riots, and after being tried were punished with imprisonment. Mr Feargus O'Connor, the most conspicuous person among them, from his having been a member of parliament, was soon afterwards apprehended and imprisoned.

But a more serious affair took place in South Wales, which alarmed the public, but at the same time proved to the turbulent in a very startling manner how utterly unfit their undisciplined masses were to contend with the organized power of the state, supported by the intelligent classes. On the 4th of November, a body of working people, chiefly from the mining districts, marched into the town of Newport, armed with guns, pistols, and all kinds of miscellaneous weapons. They were said to amount to more than seven thousand, and of course created very lively alarm. The leader of the band was named John Frost. He was a draper in Newport, and had been at one time a justice of the peace, but he had been dismissed from the magistracy, and was a member of the chartist convention. The mayor, Mr Phillips, behaved with much courage and prudence. While the armed mob was raging round him, and discharging their firearms, he read the riot act—the necessary preliminary to firing on a body of people. There were about thirty soldiers of the forty-fifth regiment then stationed in Newport, and they were placed in the Westgate Hotel, which was attacked by the rash mob firing through the doors and windows. When this little force was authorized by the civil magistrate to use firearms, the effect on the people

was so startling and appalling that they fled in every direction. Upwards of twenty of the rioters were killed. The physical force chartists had entertained the design of a general rebellion, of which this was to be the commencement; but the ease with which it was put down showed them the vanity of their expectations, and the utter inability of tumultuous assemblages of the populace accomplishing anything more than a certain amount of mischief. Frost, with two other leaders, were found guilty of high treason, and condemned to death, but their punishment was commuted into transportation for life.

EXERCISES.

1. Whose daughter was Queen Victoria? What country was separated from the crown by her accession? Describe the effect of her accession on the public.

2. How was parliament occupied at the time? Describe the character of the old criminal law. How did it operate in cases of forgery? What ameliorations were made on it?

3. What celebrated trial took place in Scotland in 1838? What state of matters among the manufacturing classes did it exhibit? How was it that the trades' unions exercised their tyranny?

4. Give an account of the new system of land-travelling which was introduced. What progress was made in steam navigation? Give an account of the corn laws.

5. What were the arguments employed by the supporters of the corn laws? How were they answered? What took place regarding them in parliament?

6. What new party began to assume a formidable aspect? Who used to be called radicals? What were the points contended for by the chartists? Give an account of their conduct. Was there much probability that they would be able to contend successfully with the institutions of the country?

7. What parties did the chartists become divided into? What misfortune aided the violent party? What expectations did they hold out to the working classes? What redeeming features characterized them?

8. What policy did the government adopt as to the chartists? What took place at Birmingham? Mention the chief circumstances of the rising at Newport. What lesson did its result teach?

SECTION XXI.

1. WHILE the events mentioned in the preceding section occurred out of parliament, what is called a ministerial crisis was taking place within, and there was a general belief that a change of ministry was at hand. The chartist agitation was one ground of attack on the ministry—many friends of the old system blamed their lenient policy, and demanded what they called “a strong government,” prepared to suppress all agitation. There were other causes of ministerial weakness. A well known outbreak had occurred in Canada; and though it had been suppressed, yet it was difficult to find the means of establishing peace in the colony, since those who had been instrumental in putting down the rebellion would themselves be

likely to resent any measure which affected their party prejudices. The government, desirous of showing how important they considered the adjustment of Canadian affairs, sent thither Lord Durham, who had generally been considered the head of the party which went farther than the whig government. He was to act as governor of both Upper and Lower Canada, and as commissioner for adjusting the differences which had taken place. His mission was, however, in some respects unfortunate, for he adopted measures regarding the insurgents which the home government would not sanction. He consequently abruptly resigned his functions and returned to Britain. An able report had in the meantime been prepared under the superintendence of Lord Durham by Mr Charles Buller and other men of ability who had accompanied him on his mission. This formed the foundation on which the arrangement of the Canadian differences must necessarily be based, and the government felt that without a considerable majority in parliament they might not be able to carry through a complete and satisfactory measure. These difficulties suggested doubts as to the propriety of their retaining office; but their ability to do so was still more severely tried in a measure affecting the West India colonies. Many disputes had arisen with the legislative bodies in these colonies when the law for the emancipation of slaves came into force, and some resolutions were passed by the colonial legislature of Jamaica which induced the government to bring in a bill for the suspension of the local constitution of the island. This measure led to a long and keen debate. A number of those members who had usually voted for government were inclined to oppose them on the question, and on a division ministers were only supported by a majority of five, the numbers being 294 to 289. Although not absolutely defeated, yet they considered this circumstance an indication that they would not get their other measures carried through, and on the 7th of May they resigned.

2. The country now expected a tory ministry. The queen sent for Sir Robert Peel, who engaged to form a cabinet; and he proposed that it should consist, besides himself, of the Duke of Wellington, Lord Lyndhurst, Lord Aberdeen, Lord Ellenborough, Lord Stanley, Sir James Graham, Sir Henry Hardinge, and Mr Goulburn. But a difficulty of a very peculiar kind prevented the cabinet from being formed. It was the desire of Sir Robert Peel that no one should have confidential access to her majesty but those on whom he could rely as friends of the measures of his administration, and thus he proposed immediately to displace the ladies of the bed-

chamber. To this her majesty would not consent, and Sir Robert gave up the task of forming a cabinet, the Melbourne ministry agreeing to resume office. This incident is curious, because fortunately it is extremely rare that in this country the personal will of the monarch has an effect on important political movements. A parliamentary majority resting on the support of the country is always the substantial power by which even those acts which appear to be the sovereign's doing, such as a change of ministry, are actually accomplished. The reason why the personal inclination of the sovereign seemed so effective in this case was the absence of any preponderating parliamentary force, from the two parties being so nearly balanced. What, however, gave effect to her majesty's wishes was the popular feeling that she was hard pressed, and not very well used, in being required to live completely isolated from her personal friends. The people thought this a sacrifice that she should not be called upon to make, and they gave her a popular support, which greatly revived the strength of the ministry. Moreover, the queen did not proceed on the impulse of her own self-will, but acted under the advice of a cabinet council, the members of which justified their recommendation in parliament.

3. The chief objects of local and personal interest in Scotland were the disputes of the Church, and its conflict with the courts of law, arising out of the veto act; but it may be better to give a full history of these events afterwards. Some measures of law reform, particularly with reference to the practice of the courts and to the bankruptcy system, were passed in this and the preceding year. The most important measure particularly relating to Scotland was an act for the regulation of prisons. There had been great abuses in these establishments, amenable as they were to mere local management. In some the prisoners were liable to undue hardship, no attention being paid to cleanliness or proper diet, while at the same time they were subjected to the caprice of tyrannical keepers,—aggravations of their punishment which the law never intended. In others the prison was a place of license, where luxury and debauchery were encouraged, where thieves spent their stolen money in liquor, and old offenders instructed the new in the art of crime. A system of local boards, with a central board to check any irregularities they might commit, was established by the act, and arrangements were made for preserving order, sobriety, and industry among the criminals, and preventing them from contaminating each other.

4. The country had for some time felt a great interest in the prospect of the queen being married,—an event which it

was generally hoped might soon take place. It is always of the greatest importance in this country that there should be an unobjectionable heir to the throne, quietly to succeed on the death of the sovereign; and it was evident that unless her majesty had children this might not be the case. Much interest was thus felt at the opening of the parliament of 1840, as it was understood that the queen would then declare her intentions on the subject. The sovereign and the rest of the royal family are the only persons in the realm who are by law restricted in their choice on such an occasion. They are virtually obliged by act of parliament to marry into the families of foreign princes. Her majesty selected for her husband the Prince Albert, a younger son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, a small German principality in the southern part of Thuringia, and she announced her choice to parliament in these terms:—"I have declared my intention of allying myself in marriage with the Prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. I humbly implore that the divine blessing may prosper this union, and render it conducive to the interests of my people as well as my own domestic happiness." The marriage took place on the 10th of February, and was celebrated throughout the country by many public demonstrations of the loyal feeling of the people. The conduct of the prince justified the choice of her majesty and the opinion of her advisers. Holding rank next to that of the sovereign, he had no political authority from his position as the prince consort, and he has shown his good sense in never having been known to connect himself with the party politics of the country. His family have long been respected as patrons of the arts, and his royal highness has with great propriety and discretion appeared in connexion with public affairs in this country only when he found opportunities for using the influence of his high station for the encouragement of art and of benevolent institutions.

For some time during the year 1840 the nation was disturbed by the fear of a European war. Mehemet Ali, the pasha of Egypt, was attempting to throw off his allegiance to the Turkish throne; and though he was himself an excellent governor, it was thought that if he withdrew Egypt from the protection of Turkey and made it an independent state, it would probably at his death become a scene of contention, and might fall to the lot of some ambitious conqueror. Britain, with Austria, Russia, and Prussia, resolved to support the ascendancy of Turkey; and as France not only objected to this policy, but considered herself insulted by the manner in which a treaty was entered into by the other powers, the press of

that country and a large portion of the people raised a furious cry for war. It died away, however, after some victories by the British on the Syrian coast, which brought the question to a speedy settlement.

5. One of the most important domestic events of this year was the adoption of the uniform penny postage. A measure had been passed in the previous session making a gradual approach towards the system, but it was on 10th January 1840 that it came into full operation throughout the British islands. It had been demanded by general popular feeling, and forced on the government. It was first suggested in a pamphlet written by Mr Rowland Hill, who showed that when many letters were passing to various places, the difference of cost applicable to each, between conveying it for a short and a long distance, was trifling—sometimes not amounting to a farthing for hundreds of miles. Letters occupy but a small space in vehicles, and when there is a large number of them, the proportion of the cost of carriage must fall light on each one. The chief expense formerly was in the sorting and distributing them, and especially in fixing and collecting the different rates of postage. It was argued that it was not worth while making a difference in charge on account of distance, and that a uniform charge on all letters would obviate a great deal of trouble and expense. He showed that letters of ordinary size could not only be conveyed at a penny each, but could be so conveyed with a profit to the revenue—and so it has proved. The new system is so well known in practice, that it may be better on this occasion to give some description of the old. The postage for the smallest letter varied from a penny to upwards of a shilling, according to the distance it was carried. If it was written on two pieces of paper, however small and light they might be, it was charged double postage: this was to prevent the writer of a letter sent to any distant place from enclosing another in it to a person in the same place, which might thus go free of postage. There were no postage stamps, and it was rare to pay the postage beforehand, the amount being collected as each letter was delivered. To save some men in public situations from a heavy burden in letter postage, what was called the Franking Privilege was established. Each member of parliament was entitled to receive and to send off ten letters a-day, not exceeding an ounce weight each, free of postage; and some public officers were entitled gratuitously to send and receive packages of any size and in any number.

In the month of June, an intense excitement was created throughout the country by the news that an attempt had been

made to assassinate the queen. It appeared that on the 10th of the month, as her majesty and the prince were driving in an open carriage in Hyde Park, a young man advanced from the crowd and fired two pistols in succession, taking aim at the carriage. He was immediately seized, and found to be a wretched youth of the name of Oxford, who had been a potboy at a tavern, and had lately shown indications of mental aberration. Some apparatus for making bullets was found in his house, along with documents appearing to belong to an imaginary secret society. No bullets, however, were discovered near the scene of the outrage, and it remained a question whether any had been used. He was put on trial for high treason, and the jury found that he was "guilty, he being at the time insane." He was afterwards committed to a lunatic asylum. Notwithstanding this humiliating conclusion of the attempt to commit a great state crime, it was unfortunately repeated, and no effectual means were found to suppress it until a sharp corporal punishment was applied to it as to a crime which was rather odious than great. The old law punished it as high treason, and it was suspected that the importance of being thus treated as a state offender was the main inducement to obscure imbecile individuals to perpetrate the offence, of pretending to attempt rather than actually attempting, the assassination of the sovereign. After the pomp of a state prosecution was over, it was not a sufficient punishment to consign the criminals to an asylum—they were generally, though half crazy, quite amenable to the influence of severe and wholesome chastisement.

6. Parliament was opened on 26th January 1841 for an eventful session. The earlier objects of discussion were the amendment of the English poor law, a bill for altering the system for the registration of voters in Ireland brought in by Lord Stanley, and the state of the dispute about the veto law in Scotland. This may be a proper place for resuming the history of that matter. In the Auchterarder case, already mentioned, a decision was given against the legality of the veto, first by the Court of Session, and afterwards by the House of Lords. The party within the church who were opposed to it, and were commonly called the Moderates, while its supporters were called Non-intrusionists, thought this a good opportunity for calling on their brethren to retrace their steps. The matter was brought before the General Assembly at its usual meeting in May 1839, but this body resolved by a considerable majority to stand by the veto act. About the same time a singular scene was exhibited in the Court of Session. It has been mentioned that in the case of Lethendy

the church courts had put the veto act in force, in defiance of an interdict or prohibition by the Court of Session. It remained for that tribunal to consider how it ought to act on the occasion. The usual way in which courts of law enforce proceedings of this kind is by imprisoning those who resist until they obey the law. But there was a natural repugnance to commit to prison a body of respectable clergymen, who believed that they were performing a sacred duty. The plan adopted was to bring those who had acted on the occasion, being the majority of the members of the presbytery of Dunkeld, to the bar of the court, where they received a reprimand pronounced against them by the Lord President.

In the meantime, another and more remarkable case was going on—that of Strathbogie. In 1837, Mr Edwards had received from the patron a presentation to the parish of Mar-noch, where a majority of the male heads of families objected to him. The greater number of the presbytery not being friendly to the veto act, instead of immediately rejecting him, applied for instruction to the higher church courts, by whom they were directed to put the act in force by rejecting Mr Edwards, and they did so accordingly. A presentation was then made out in favour of another person; but Mr Edwards appealed to the courts of law to protect his interest, and the presbytery came to a resolution to delay their proceedings until the legal questions were settled. A minority of the presbytery, however, were not content with this arrangement, but appealed to the synod, and the matter was laid before the General Assembly. That body directed the presbytery to hold themselves at the disposal of the Commission of the Assembly, which meets at stated periods between each annual meeting of the Assembly. In the meantime, Mr Edwards had obtained a decision in his favour from the Court of Session, and the majority of the presbytery, who were never in favour of the veto, now declared that they were ready to fulfil the law as laid down by that tribunal. They then appointed the trial of Mr Edwards to be proceeded with in ordinary form. On this the Commission of Assembly issued a judgment suspending the recusant members of the presbytery from their functions, and appointing other clergymen to preach for them. An application was immediately made to the Court of Session, which issued an interdict against the execution of this sentence, and prohibiting those who had been authorized by the commission from making use of the churches, churchyards, or schoolhouses, of the parishes in the presbytery. On going farther into the matter, they prohibited all interference with

the majority, in the exercise of their functions according to law.

7. In the General Assembly of 1841, this discussion was brought to an issue. A sentence of deposition from the ministry was passed against the clergymen who formed the majority of the presbytery of Strathbogie, and they withdrew Mr Edwards' license as a preacher. The usual course of an application for an interdict was adopted as to these measures, and the court prohibited them from being put in force. There were now two presbyteries of Strathbogie,—the one following the directions of the church courts, and the other adhering to the law as administered by the civil courts. At the ensuing election of members of Assembly, one of them elected one set of men to represent the presbytery, and the other another. The Assembly of course would not permit those chosen by the majority to form a part of their body, and the civil courts granted interdict against the representatives of the minority taking their seats.

This state of matters could not escape notice in parliament. In 1840, Lord Aberdeen professed to introduce a measure which he thought would satisfy the non-intrusion party, but it was a compromise of which they would not accept; and indeed, from the position they had taken, they necessarily denied that parliament had any right to interfere in the question, holding it to be one for the church courts alone to control. His lordship having lost any hope of a successful adjustment, abandoned the measure. In 1841, the Duke of Argyle brought in a bill to accomplish a like object, but with no better success. In this session the whole question was repeatedly referred to in debates, the main feature of which was the decidedly expressed disinclination of Lord Melbourne to attempt to interpose with any legislative adjustment of the dispute. It was repeatedly stated in the course of these debates, that the party which had professed merely to desire the principle of the veto was now seeking the entire abolition of patronage. An allusion was made to a document like the solemn league and covenant, called "An Engagement in Defence of the Liberty of the Church of Scotland," in which the friends of the cause engaged in holy covenant to maintain at all hazards the principles there set forth, and on no account to make any surrender or compromise of them. Church party spirit now ran high in Scotland. Almost every individual, whether he belonged to the Church of Scotland or not, took a side on the veto question; it severed friendships, and often divided families. Caricatures—a rare thing in Scotland—were levelled against the leading men on

both sides ; a large meeting, with Lord Dunfermline in the chair, was held in Edinburgh to express sympathy with the deposed ministers of the presbytery of Strathbogie, and similar meetings were held in other places ; while the non-intrusion party found at the same time many methods for continuing an active agitation in their own favour.

8. The history of the ministry for some time past had been one of abortive and defeated efforts. It was evident that the reason why the conservatives did not endeavour more determinedly to drive them from office was because they themselves were not yet strong enough to wield a government. The Opposition were strong enough, however, to frustrate any measure of which they disapproved, especially in the House of Lords, and session after session presented an array of bills brought in only to be defeated or abandoned. The subject of the corn laws brought parties more closely to issue. Many taxes having been repealed by the whig government, while the expenditure of the country had not been reduced, there was a deficiency of revenue which had to be made up. In considering how this should be done, the chancellor of the exchequer pointed among other things to a low fixed duty on foreign corn. It will be remembered that the then existing tax on corn was in the form of what is called the sliding scale, operating so that when corn was dear at home the duty should be small, and when cheap it should be large. It had thus the effect of always keeping out foreign corn while the home produce was below a certain point. This acted in favour of the landlords to an extent which would not be accomplished by a fixed duty ; because that duty being still the same whatever was the price of corn at home, foreign produce, when very cheap abroad, might undersell home-grown corn in the market. It was at the same time indicated that ministers were prepared to bring in some other measures, the direction of which would tend towards freedom of trade. Among these was a revival of the sugar duties, which acted as a virtual exclusion of the sugar of foreign nations from this country, from its having to pay a much higher duty than the produce of our colonies. The landlords and the other friends of protection now became alarmed, and the free-trade party redoubled their activity. On the 7th of May, Lord John Russell announced to the house the intention of ministers to propose a fixed duty on corn, amounting, in the case of wheat, to 8s. per quarter. A debate then commenced on the sugar duties, which lasted for eight days, and ended in the government being defeated by a majority of 36. Lord John Russell moved the adjournment of the house ; and as a specimen of the state of excitement to

which contending parties were brought by the near approach of a change of ministry, the remarks of Lord Darlington may be cited. He said: "It was plain that the government meant to stay in office with a tenacity—he must be allowed to say—unparalleled in the history of governments, and with the deliberate decision of the House of Commons unequivocally declared against them." He demanded to know when Lord John Russell would bring on the question of the corn laws. The answer was, "On Friday the 4th of June." To prevent the strength of the government from being tried on a question now becoming so popular, Sir Robert Peel, on the 27th of May, moved a resolution, "That her majesty's ministers do not sufficiently possess the confidence of the House of Commons to enable them to carry through the house measures which they deem of essential importance to the public welfare, and that their continuance in office under such circumstances is at variance with the spirit of the constitution." The debate on this motion lasted five days, and on a division there was a majority of one in its favour, and against ministers, the numbers being 312 to 311. It now remained for the cabinet either to resign at once or appeal to the public through a general election. They adopted the latter course, that whatever views the free trade agitation might have diffused, the constituencies might have an opportunity of exercising their influence on the question. It was soon apparent, however, that the general election would not strengthen the hands of the government. The conservative party had been gradually growing in influence; it was compact, and had a settled object—resistance to every change or innovation. On the other hand, the proposals of the government regarding the corn laws did not conciliate the free trade party, who were averse to a fixed duty, and used as their motto, "A fixed duty is a fixed injustice." It was plain indeed that if such a duty were once established, and by large annual importations of corn a revenue of two millions or so were derived from it, there was scarcely a possibility of its being repealed. The free traders thought it better to stand by the broad principle of no duty at all, and the result has shown them to have been right. The new parliament was opened by commission on 19th August. The first battle occurred on the usual address, approving of the queen's speech, as indicating the policy of her cabinet. An amendment was moved in the House of Lords by the Earl of Ripon, to the effect that it was the duty of the house humbly to submit to her majesty, that it was essential to the satisfactory result of their deliberations that her majesty's government should possess the confidence of that house and of the

country, and respectfully to represent that their confidence is not reposed in her present advisers. On this amendment there was a majority against ministers of 72. This occurring only in the House of Lords was by no means conclusive, but in the Commons a similar amendment was moved by Mr J. S. Wortley, and after a long debate carried by a majority of 91, the numbers being 360 to 269. It was now clear that the parliamentary ascendancy of the whig party, which had existed more than ten years, was at an end, and on the 28th of August the ministry resigned.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the causes of the weakness of ministers? What did they desire to effect regarding Canada? Describe the proceedings in parliament which induced them to resign.

2. Who were to be the members of the new cabinet? Mention the difficulty which prevented its being formed. How did the peculiar circumstances of the case acquire importance?

3. What were the chief events of interest in Scotland? Describe the change made in the system of imprisonment.

4. What event did the country look forward to? What gave peculiar importance to the marriage of the queen? To whom was she married? What events in the east threatened the country with war?

5. What important domestic improvement took place in 1840? Describe the difference between the old and the new postage system. What outrages were committed against the queen?

6. What decisions were given regarding the veto law? What took place in consequence of them in the General Assembly? What took place in the Lethendy case? Describe the proceedings in the Strathbogie case.

7. What took place in the General Assembly of 1841? What measure was brought in by Lord Aberdeen? What document was signed by the supporters of the veto?

8. What was the position of the ministry? What policy did they propose to adopt? What parliamentary division showed their weakness? What course did they pursue? Describe the manner in which they were defeated in the new parliament.

SECTION XXII.

1. It was considered that the head of the cabinet ought to be a member of the House of Commons—a view suggested by the increased power acquired by that body since the passing of the reform act, and by the consideration that in that house measures are carried or lost, and cabinets are made or unmade. Sir Robert Peel was the person on whom the dignity and responsibility naturally devolved, and he headed the administration as first lord of the treasury. Lord Lyndhurst, after an absence of ten years, with one brief interval, was restored to the chancellor's woolsack. Sir James Graham and Lord Stanley, formerly members of Earl Grey's ministry, now differed so far from their old colleagues as to hold office in the new government, the one being home and the other colonial secretary. The other members of the cabinet were—Lord Wharncliffe,

president of the council; the Duke of Buckingham, lord privy seal; Mr Goulburn, chancellor of the exchequer; Lord Aberdeen, foreign secretary; Lord Haddington, first lord of the admiralty; Lord Ellenborough, president of the board of control for India affairs; Lord Ripon, president of the board of trade; Sir Henry Hardinge, secretary at war; and Sir G. Knatchbull, paymaster-general. Sir William Rae resumed his old office of lord advocate for Scotland.

The first parliamentary operations of the new government were watched with intense anxiety. An explanation of the policy of the cabinet was expected, and it came in a manner which excited some amusement in the public mind. It must be observed that there is no speaking permitted by the rules of parliament unless in reference to some business on hand, or some motion actually before it. The prime minister did not yet choose to commit himself to any actual measures, and still it was necessary to say something of the future. He therefore attached his explanation to a piece of routine business, which could not in the least degree connect itself with the larger objects of his policy. He moved for a copy of the letter of the first commissioner of woods and forests to the chancellor of the exchequer on the subject of warming and ventilating the two houses of parliament. He then stated, that in the meantime he would adopt the financial arrangements of his predecessors, taking means of a temporary nature to remedy the deficiency in the revenue. He said farther, "with respect to measures of a more permanent character, having for their object to equalize the revenue and expenditure of the country, it is not our intention during the present session of parliament to submit any measures for the consideration of the house. I have already expressed my opinion that it is absolutely necessary to provide effectually for the equalization of the revenue and expenditure, and we shall avail ourselves of the earliest opportunity, after a mature consideration of the circumstances and condition of the country, to submit to parliament measures for the purpose of remedying the existing evils. Whether that is to be done by diminishing the expenditure of the country or by increasing the revenue, or by a combination of these two means, I must postpone for farther consideration." After having transacted the routine business for which it was assembled, parliament was prorogued on the 7th October, and the winter was spent in an anxious curiosity on the part of the public about the measures of the new premier, while he himself was busily occupied in collecting from the proper official sources such information as might enable him to form and defend his plans.

2. The chief interest connected with the foreign politics of the country in 1841 centred round its relations with the United States of America. The extinction of the outbreak in Canada had not been accomplished without some unpleasant misunderstandings with the citizens of the American districts nearest to the Canadian border. A British subject named Macleod, who had rendered himself offensive to the Americans, had been seized in the States, and was brought to trial for his acts of hostility as if he had been a citizen of the Union committing an offence against its government. Fears were entertained that such a proceeding might lead to a war, but the danger was fortunately averted by Macleod being acquitted on his trial.

The opening of the parliament in 1842 was naturally waited for with anxious curiosity, which was augmented by the Duke of Buckingham—the great supporter of agricultural protection—resigning his office. The session was opened on the 3d of February by the queen in person, who began the royal speech by an allusion to the birth of a prince and an heir to the throne. A general reference was made to the state of the finances, and a recommendation given to revise the corn laws. On the 9th of February, in a full house, and with an anxious crowd waiting outside to learn the general features of the new measure reported to them, Sir Robert Peel moved “that this house resolve itself into a committee to consider the trade in corn.” The measure then proposed was the sliding scale in a modified or reduced shape. As the price of corn sunk in this country the duty on imported grain was to rise, so as to prevent the home produce from being undersold, unless when grain was at a high price. When wheat was 73s. a-quarter, the duty was to be 1s.,—when it was under 51s. a-quarter, the duty was to be £1. It has been mentioned that the general effect of the old act was to prevent foreign wheat from being sold at less than 86s. a-quarter, while the tendency of Sir Robert Peel’s measure was to prevent foreign produce from entering the market at a lower price than British, unless when this latter was above 73s. a-quarter. Mr Cobden, now in parliament, at once proclaimed the hostility of the free trade party to this project. He was supported throughout the country by great meetings in the manufacturing districts, and numerous petitions to parliament. The party had now combined themselves into a very formidable body called the Anti Corn Law League, whose main object was to educate the people in the political economy of the question by circulating tracts and employing lecturers. Large sums of money were readily placed at their disposal, by

those who held that a duty on corn, and especially that regulated by a sliding scale, was a serious interruption to the progress of manufactures and commerce. The hostility to a corn law was much strengthened by a prostration of trade which had been going on for some time, but in 1842 reached an alarming and almost unexampled height. Many manufacturers failed, others shut up their establishments or worked them at half-time. The town of Paisley, depending entirely on manufactures, was conspicuous in this general distress, and the utmost energy and self-sacrifice were necessary to keep thousands from death by starvation. The streets of the large towns and the turnpike roads were filled with groups of disheartened and starving operatives, with their families, seeking work or charity. Even a stranger might have seen by the most palpable outward signs how much misery there was throughout the land—a thing very rarely thus perceptible in this country. The general calamity was at the same time increased by the injudicious conduct of some colliers and other operatives, who struck work for increased wages.

3. In the midst of all these formidable symptoms, the protectionists even showed a disposition to reject the new scale of duties, as not sufficiently favourable to them. By acting on the advice of their friends in parliament, who could not fail to see that the very existence of protection was endangered, they preserved a sullen silence. Lord John Russell proposed as an amendment, "That this house, considering the evils which have been caused by the present corn laws, and especially by the fluctuations of the graduated or sliding scale, is not prepared to adopt the measure of her majesty's government, which is founded upon the same principles, and is likely to be attended by similar results." The ministerial measure was however carried by 349 votes to 226. Mr Villiers, as representing the free trade party, moved "that all duties payable on the importation of corn, meal, and flour, do now cease and determine." This was not proposed with any hope of its being carried, but with a view to the full discussion of the question. It was thrown out by the large majority of 393 to 90; and other efforts to stop the measure were defeated in a similar manner.

But Sir Robert Peel had still an important announcement to make in reference to his plans of taxation for making up the deficiency in the revenue. On the 11th March he developed his system in a committee of ways and means, to a full and attentive house. It was then that he proposed his income tax, amounting to 7d. per pound sterling, or to about three per cent. on all incomes of £150 a-year and upwards, whether

derived from property or from professions, trades, and occupations. He estimated that it would produce £4,380,000; but he had underrated the great wealth of the middle classes of the country, for the amount of the impost has always been between five millions and five millions and a half. Although creating so serious a charge on the incomes of the middle classes, this measure met on the whole a favourable reception from them. It caused some division in the Opposition, several of whom came forward in its support. Lord John Russell announced his hostility to the measure, but his resistance was overwhelmed by large majorities. Efforts were made by Lord Brougham, Mr Roebuck, and others, to have one scale for the tax on realized property, and another for that on precarious income, but these attempts were also defeated. The third reading was carried in the House of Commons by 199 to 69.

When bringing forward this measure, Sir Robert had at the same time to explain his views on the other branches of taxation, and especially those which had relation to the trade and manufactures of the country. He thus announced the new "tariff," a French term which has been applied to the duties on articles imported from abroad. It had been the practice to make these duties so heavy on some commodities—as, for instance, butcher meat, agricultural produce, and some manufactured goods,—that instead of being a tax, it prevented them from being imported at all, unless when they were smuggled. It was evidently the object of Sir Robert Peel's tariff to change this system, and to make the duties such, not that they might prevent the articles from being imported, but that they might be really levied and assist the revenue. It was part of the plan, that on the raw materials used for manufactures in this country the duty should not exceed five per cent. On articles partially manufactured it was to be about twelve per cent., and on complete manufactures not above twenty per cent. Oxen, sheep, and other agricultural produce, which had previously been prohibited, were to be admitted at a moderate rate of duty—it amounted for instance to 15s. for each cow, and 3s. for each sheep. In giving a fuller exposition of his measure, Sir Robert made this remarkable admission, which alarmed the protectionists: "I believe that in the general principle of free trade there is now no great difference of opinion, and that all agree in the general rule that we should purchase in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest."

4. While many measures have produced more public outcry, few have been known to occasion so much personal discontent as this tariff. Landowners on whose ground sheep or cattle were

reared, and their tenants—the owners of fishings—shoemakers, cork-cutters, makers of various articles of clothing, and other persons engaged in the production of many different kinds of commodities, petitioned against allowing foreigners to compete with them. On the one side the free traders endeavoured to get the duties on articles from foreign countries reduced to a level with those brought from the colonies, while on the other side the protectionists attacked the duties on foreign produce as too low. On the whole, however, the free traders were more content with the measure than the protectionists. The former viewed it as a step in advance towards their own opinions—the latter as the beginning of a dangerous abandonment of their interests. Accordingly Mr Miles, their representative on the occasion, proposed to substitute for Sir Robert Peel's tariff a scale of duties prepared more in conformity with the views of his party. The government was on this occasion supported by Lord John Russell and the members of his party, and the tariff of the protectionists was lost by 380 to 113. When the measure had been fully discussed and was about to pass, Lord John made a speech admitting that the alterations were calculated to effect a great improvement on the commercial system of the country. He rejoiced that they were founded on principles which had been suggested and brought forward by his own party. He regretted, however, that these principles had not been carried out farther, and especially that they had not been applied to some of the most important articles of subsistence. A high revenue-duty was still maintained on butter and cheese—a differential duty on coffee remained in favour of the English colonies, and the tax on foreign sugar was almost prohibitive. The bill passed the commons on 28th June, and received the royal assent on 9th July. So passed an act of greater importance to this country and to the world at large than many a bloody and renowned battle. It was not merely by the new trades it opened up, and the burdens it reduced, that it exercised an influence on the comforts and resources of the country. It was the first declaration of a principle to be afterwards followed out—the principle that all restrictions and prohibitions affecting the natural course of trade, however beneficial they may be to individuals, are injurious to the country at large, and ought to be abolished. Having concluded this important business, parliament was chiefly occupied during the remainder of the session in inquiries into bribery and other undue practices connected with elections. The public had the satisfaction to observe, that though almost all penal legislation had been ineffective in putting down these corrupt practices, the feeling

of the house itself was rising against them, and members began to think it rather a disgrace than an honour to have spent large sums in the demoralization of their constituencies.

5. In the autumn vacation, Scotland was gratified by an event, which has since then been a matter of more ordinary occurrence—a royal progress. The capital of a country becomes accustomed to the presence of royalty, and almost indifferent to it; but in the provinces its novelty excites a lively sensation, and the multitude, anxious to embrace the only opportunity they may have of seeing the actual living head of the state, in whose name it is governed, crowd eagerly to the scene. In this instance the natural curiosity of the people was mingled with an admiration of the domestic virtues which adorn the palace, and of the public and private character of the sovereign. The royal family arrived at Edinburgh on the 3d September, amidst much crowding and rejoicing. They thence proceeded northwards to the Highlands, where loyalty is a sort of popular religion among the people, and where they consequently received the most unqualified homage. These indications of enthusiasm were all the more interesting, that shortly before two individuals had again sought a wretched notoriety by firing at the queen. It was on this occasion that a law was passed to deprive this crime of the pomp of high treason, and to make it a degrading offence to be punished with imprisonment and whipping.

The state of Europe at this time was such as to give every prospect of continued tranquillity, but the country was painfully interested in distant wars connected with our Indian empire. Operations had been for some time in progress in Afghanistan, when, in the spring of 1842, the public mind was roused by disastrous news of the defeat and slaughter of our troops in the preceding winter—an event which filled many houses with mourning. The British supremacy was, however, soon restored; and in China the hostilities which the perversity of its rulers had rendered necessary, were crowned with success, and at last brought the imperial court to reason.

6. In Scotland towards the end of the year 1842, matters were fast ripening for the event of the ensuing year—the disruption of the Established Church. At their usual sitting, the General Assembly had passed a resolution by a large majority to the effect that patronage ought to be abolished. They at the same time adopted a document, called “A Claim, Declaration, and Protest against the Encroachments of the Court of Session.” This was transmitted to government, with an address to her majesty praying her to consider the matter and grant the redress sought. In autumn, no special answer

having been vouchsafed to this appeal, the commission of the Assembly represented that the silence of her majesty's government was a disrespect to the church, and intimated that if the redress they demanded were not given, there would certainly be a great secession from the establishment. In the meantime, the non-intrusion party met in convention in Edinburgh with closed doors, and are supposed to have then laid down the plan of proceedings which was afterwards adopted. In answer to the applications to the queen, a ministerial declaration was issued on 4th January 1843 by Sir James Graham. He denied that there had been any encroachments by the civil power, and maintained that the church courts had attempted to make encroachments which had only been repressed. He stated that the act of assembly in 1834, rendering it necessary that the presentee to a church should be acceptable to the majority of the male heads of the congregation was an innovation tending to the establishment of a practice quite new in the church, and interfering with private rights which the law was bound to protect. He regretted the possibility of a severance of the establishment, but held out no prospect of relief such as the applicants demanded. As a last attempt to affect the legislature, a petition to parliament was presented on the 7th of March by Mr Fox Maule, who moved for a committee of the whole house to take the petition into consideration. Had such a motion been adopted, it would have been equivalent to an admission that parliament was prepared to interpose, but it was lost by 211 to 76. On that occasion, Sir Robert Peel congratulated the house on the great extent of serious religious feeling then abroad, but he cautioned the country against attempting to couple it with a predominance of influence to ecclesiastical bodies, saying, "If the House of Commons is prepared to depart from those principles upon which the Reformation was founded, and which principles are essential to the maintenance of the civil and religious liberties of the country, whether it proceeds from the Church of Rome or from the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, nothing but evil could result; the greatest evil of which would be the establishment of religious domination, which would alike endanger the religion of the country and the civil rights of man."

7. All was now ready for the great sacrifice. On the 18th May 1843, the General Assembly met as usual in St Andrew's Church in Edinburgh. Dr Welsh, who had been moderator in the previous session, immediately stood up and read a protest signed by 121 ministers and 73 elders. It enumerated in distinct propositions the various matters in which the church was shown by the late proceedings to be

amenable to the civil power, whence they said, we “do protest that the conditions aforesaid, while we deem them contrary to and subversive of the settlement of church government effected at the Revolution, and solemnly guaranteed by the Act of Security and Treaty of Union, are also at variance with God’s Word, in opposition to the doctrines and fundamental principles of the Church of Scotland, inconsistent with the freedom essential to the right constitution of a church of Christ, and incompatible with the government which he as the head of his church hath therein appointed distinct from the civil magistrate;” and they protested that any assembly chosen under the circumstances of this one “is not and shall not be deemed a free and lawful assembly of the Church of Scotland, according to the original and fundamental principles thereof.” The adherents to this protest then left the assembly in a body, and passing through a crowd of people influenced by various feelings, they walked in procession along the streets of Edinburgh, and thence to Canonmills, where they assembled in a large apartment of a building formerly used as a gas-work, and which had been found well suited to accommodate them. They there formed themselves into a new ecclesiastical body with the name of “The Free Church of Scotland,” and choosing the venerable Dr Chalmers as their moderator, proceeded to transact business as if they were still the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. It was in fact one of their main principles to avow that they were the true Church of Scotland, and that the establishment had departed from the original constitution of the presbyterian church. Before this event, which has generally been called the Disruption, arrangements had been made for collecting money to provide means of subsistence for the clergy of the Free Church, and defray the expense of their performing the ordinances of religion—matters which in the case of the established clergy were of course provided for by public funds. At the time of the secession the money collected amounted to about a quarter of a million sterling. They immediately proceeded to organize a parochial system, so as to have a free church not only for each minister of the establishment who had joined their body, but likewise in those places where the clergyman still remained a member of the establishment. As they had thus not only to provide from their own body a complete system of spiritual superintendence over the country, but also to do what the established church did not require—to collect funds to support their system, and to build churches—they found it necessary to have a large body of secular or lay officers. To that of Elders they added the institution of Deacons, whose duty it was to assist in

the management of the temporal affairs of their church. They adopted "An Act of Separation and Deed of Demission," by which they resigned all rights and emoluments which they possessed as ministers of the establishment. So was completed this celebrated secession. While there were great differences of opinion about the justice of the claims of these clergymen when they were members of the establishment, there was but one opinion of the zeal and disinterestedness with which they acted in thus resigning their emoluments. The vigour and talent with which they pursued their objects were likewise well entitled to admiration. The money collected by them for various purposes has generally exceeded three hundred thousand pounds a-year. The sums appropriated to the salaries of their ministers were brought together into one central fund, called the Sustentation-fund, from which an annual allowance was paid to each, amounting at first to £100 a-year, but which has since been increased. Besides the stipend paid to them from this fund, many of the clergymen receive a supplementary allowance from their hearers, more or less according to the ability of their congregations and their own popularity. These events of course caused a great and sudden increase in the number of churches in Scotland; and besides the edifices for the performance of worship, the Free Church founded and endowed a college for the education of her clergy.

8. In the meanwhile, the General Assembly of the established church, free of the presence of those who as a majority had ruled all their acts, commenced immediately to undo those proceedings which had created the contest with the courts of law. Many vacancies had of course to be filled up, and the new churches built by the seceding body could not be crowded as they were, without in some measure thinning the attendance at those of the establishment. Within a short time after the secession of the Free Church, an act of parliament was passed altering the constitution of the Church of Scotland, and in reality bringing it nearer to the principle of the veto system. It is commonly called "Lord Aberdeen's Act," from the name of the statesman who chiefly took charge of it. This act does not allow of an absolute veto by members of the congregation without showing a cause, but it gives power to the church courts to listen to the objections that may be made against a presentee, and to give effect to them if they find that he is an unsuitable person for the particular charge. The reason for passing such an act at the time was, that a small number of clergymen had remained in the establishment on the understanding that such a change in the law would be introduced.

It is rather a remarkable thing, that while this great dispute in the Church of Scotland was in progress, the episcopal community were threatened with divisions of a similar character. There had sprung up in England a party who were called Puseyites, after Dr Pusey, one of their leaders, or Tractarians, from their opinions having been promulgated in a series of pamphlets called "Tracts for the Times." The name, however, which they themselves courted was that of Anglo-Catholics. The great body of the English Church has always contained different parties, some approaching presbyterianism on the one hand, others leaning to Roman catholicism on the other. Contemporary with the ecclesiastical struggle in Scotland was the rise of the tractarian party, who went farther in the direction of popery than any other had lately done. It happens that the original constitution of the Episcopal Church in Scotland was somewhat more Romish than that of the Church of England. The English Prayer-book had, however, come into common use among the congregations, and the English communion office, which is much more protestant than that of Scotland, had been used. The friends of the new party, however, desired to revert to the Scottish form; and this was somewhat embarrassing to many of the Scottish episcopal clergy who had taken orders in England. One of these, adhering to the usages of the Church of England by which he was ordained, was actually excommunicated by the Bishop of Aberdeen, and some others seceded from the body of the Scottish Episcopal Church.

9. Other important matters occurring in the year 1843, were viewed with general interest in Scotland, but concerned entirely the local politics of another part of the empire. The agitation in Ireland for the repeal of the union with Britain had assumed an alarming appearance. Assemblages more numerous than had ever before been seen, and expressively called "monster meetings," were held in various parts of the country. Implicit obedience was given to O'Connell—he issued his proclamations and directions—and might almost be said to govern the country. At length the government resolved to grapple with him, and he with several of his followers were arrested on charges of conspiracy and sedition. They were after a long trial condemned to imprisonment, but the proceedings were reversed on a point of form by the House of Lords.

The year 1844 was uneventful, in so far at least as this part of the empire is concerned, though the opinions were gradually gaining ground which subsequently caused considerable changes. The friends of free trade and the repeal of the corn laws brought their views before the House of Com-

mons, and had majorities against them; but it was becoming evident that the country was adopting their opinions, and that they would soon prevail. The revenue had improved, the amount drawn in the shape of income tax having exceeded the expectations of the minister. Trade was every where reviving, and after a period of stagnation the spirit of speculation began to be prevalent. The chancellor of the exchequer was able to perform an operation which showed the abundance of capital and the lowness of interest; it was called reducing the three and a half per cents. to three and a fourth. The interest paid on certain government loans amounting to about two hundred and fifty millions was three and a half per cent., or £3, 10s. for each hundred pounds. The chancellor of the exchequer was able to offer payment to the holders unless they chose to agree to accept a quarter per cent. less. It was not that the government could actually pay up this enormous amount; but such was the state of the money market, that there were capitalists ready to advance money at $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. to satisfy any of the holders of stock who were discontented with the offer of the government.

This was a period of financial changes. Sir Robert Peel was known to be partial to what is called the gold currency system, as preferable to the paper, and it was believed that he entertained hopes of putting his views in practice. There was considerable apprehension in Scotland that an attempt would be made to suppress the one pound notes, and as in England to prohibit the use of any notes under £5. Whether from the general unpopularity of such a project, or from other causes, this was not attempted, but some restrictive provisions were applied to England in 1844, and extended to Scotland next year. The Bank of England was divided into the "Issue department" and the "Banking department." The object of this arrangement was to prevent notes from being issued without security for their repayment, and accordingly no bank paper was to pass through the issue department beyond the amount of the securities, or of the actual gold and silver in possession of the bank. The amount of securities was limited, but the bank might issue as many additional notes as it pleased, provided it had gold and silver to the same amount. The manner in which the principle was extended to the Scottish banks was this. All new banks of issue—that is to say, banks circulating their own notes—were prohibited. An estimate was made of the number of notes circulated by each bank at a certain fixed period; and it was enacted that henceforth they were to issue no more than the quantity thus fixed, unless the surplus were represented by

bullion; that is to say, for each pound note which they gave out beyond the fixed issue, they were bound to have a pound's worth of gold or silver in their repositories.

EXERCISES.

1. From what branch of the legislature was it desirable to select the prime minister? Who was chosen? Name his colleagues. Describe Sir Robert Peel's first proceedings in parliament.

2. Mention circumstances which threatened a rupture with America. What event of importance was expected in parliament? Give some account of the nature of the new corn bill. How was it received? What body was hostile to it? What was the state of trade, and how did it affect the question?

3. How did the protectionists act? What amendment did Lord John Russell move? What did Mr Villiers move? What was the new tax brought forward? What other important measure was introduced? Describe the new tariff, and the features in which it differed from the old.

4. What kind of opponents did the new tariff call up? What opposite parties attacked it? Which party was least unfavourable to it? What remarks did Lord John Russell make on Sir Robert Peel's measures? How was parliament occupied for the remainder of the session?

5. What event occurred to create much enthusiasm in Scotland? What was the state of Europe? Where did disasters occur to the British? What occurred in China?

6. What event was approaching in Scotland? What documents were adopted by the General Assembly and transmitted to government? What meeting was held in Edinburgh? What was the nature of the answer by government to the documents? What occurred on the subject in parliament?

7. When did the disruption take place? Describe the way in which it occurred. What body did those who seceded form themselves into? Who was their moderator? What preparations had they made for the event? Give an account of their subsequent proceedings.

8. What took place in the established church? What was the nature of an act of parliament passed in relation to it? By what name is the act known? What new party had sprung up in the English Church? How did it manifest itself in the Episcopal Church in Scotland?

9. What was the nature of the occurrences in Ireland? What was the general state of the country in the year 1844? What change in the funds did the chancellor of the exchequer accomplish? What was done regarding the Bank of England? Describe the restraints placed on other banks by Sir Robert Peel's bills.

SECTION XXIII.

1. In the session of parliament for 1845, a very important measure was passed for the alteration of the poor law in Scotland. There can be nothing more important to a country than the proper regulation of its poor. If there is not a sufficient sum bestowed on them, they become utterly reckless, and die of hunger, or beg and steal. On the other hand, if they are too well provided for, they live in idleness on the money of the industrious. The old poor law of England was somewhat of the latter kind; and it has been already mentioned how it was altered in the year 1834. The Scottish poor law, however, was believed to be too parsimonious; and it was

shown in the publications of Dr Alison, an eminent physician, who took up the cause of the poor, that the amount of money spent on their relief did not constitute above a sixth of what was spent on the same population in England, even under the new economical system. The imperfection of the system was for some time urged upon the government, who first instituted a very extensive inquiry into the facts, and then passed an act for amending the system. It put the poor law under a complete new plan of local management, and appointed a board of general supervision to prevent abuses and mismanagement by the parochial boards. A method of legal redress was at the same time opened to paupers claiming relief. In a few years after the passing of this measure the amount of money collected and distributed among the poor was greatly enlarged. It has been often regretted, that when the change was made the opportunity was not taken for introducing some means of compelling the idle to work, and preventing people who could support themselves by industry from coming on the parish.

One of the most important subjects of local interest in Scotland, discussed in parliament during the session of 1845, was the University Tests. When presbyterianism asserted its supremacy at the Revolution, the educational establishments of the country were to a certain extent connected with the church. As to the universities, it was specially provided that every professor on his appointment should subscribe the Confession of Faith, and engage to practise the worship in use in the church, and conform to its doctrine and discipline. This test was intended to prevent Roman Catholics and Episcopalians from getting access to the university chairs. However, since the secession of so large a number of presbyterians from the established church, it had the effect of keeping out a great portion of the class whom it was intended originally to favour. It was at the same time maintained by many people that, unless for teachers of religion, such tests were pernicious. They considered that if a man were an able teacher of mathematics or anatomy, it was a foolish thing for the public to lose his services because he happened to be a Roman Catholic or an Episcopalian. Indeed the test had seldom been exacted, and several professors in the universities were members of the Church of England. But there was every symptom that, with the bitter ecclesiastical contests that were raging in the country, the tests would be employed for the exclusion, not so much of Episcopalians as of Presbyterian Dissenters. In May, Mr Rutherford, who had been lord advocate under Lord Melbourne's government, brought in a bill for the removal of the

tests in universities. It was defeated, but the subject has frequently been resumed in Scotland, and is coupled with a desire to obtain a wide general system of education free of ecclesiastical control.

2. The session of 1845 witnessed a continuation of Sir Robert Peel's reductions in the revenue duties. Among these the tax on sugar was lessened; but the arrangement did not satisfy the free traders, because it still kept a higher duty on the produce of foreign countries than on that of our own colonies. The duty on glass was totally repealed, a great relief to the manufacturers of that beautiful substance, as they could previously conduct no operation or experiment, however trifling, without calling for the presence of an exciseman. On a quantity of imported articles there were trifling duties which brought little to the revenue, but were very troublesome both to the officers and merchants. The duty on 430 of these articles was repealed at one sweep.

The Anti Corn Law League had in the meantime been conducting its operations with great activity. It abjured all connexion with party politics, and professed solely to inculcate the doctrines of free trade. Through the aid of lecturers and an extensive circulation of pamphlets, it was daily making converts, many of them in unexpected quarters. Strong appeals were made to the agriculturists themselves. They were told that a fallacious trust in the power of the legislature to give them a protection which no human power can confer, had made them neglect the proper means of carrying on their business. They were told that when left to compete with the world at large, they would then feel it their interest, like traders and manufacturers, to improve their system of cultivation, and obtain better leases from their landlords. To bring out these views, Mr Cobden on 13th March moved for a select committee to inquire into the cause and extent of the alleged existing agricultural distress, and into the effects of legislative protection upon the interests of landlords, tenant farmers, and farm labourers. This motion was lost by 213 votes against 121; but rumours soon began to circulate about conversions to the doctrines of the league in high quarters, and it was said that the prime minister himself, with some of his most eminent colleagues, were only hesitating whether they should at once adopt them.

It did not lie, however, so much in the propagation of opinions as in a mysterious dispensation of providence, to hasten the repeal of the corn laws. It had been for some time observed with alarm, that potatoes—the most extensive article of food in this country after grain—were becoming liable to

be smitten by an incomprehensible disease, which rapidly destroyed their nutritious powers. The destruction of food, if it cannot be replaced, is just the destruction of so much human life. In Ireland, in particular, by far the larger portion of the people are absolutely dependant on the potato for existence. It was thus with redoubled alarm that those who took an interest in the state of the country heard that this article of subsistence was rapidly turning into heaps of rotten manure in the cottages of the miserable Irish peasantry, while the crop of grain, far from being sufficient to make up for the loss, was rather below the average. The potato disease appeared at the same time to be progressive, and it was deemed likely that, great as was the loss on the crop of 1845, it might be still greater on that of 1846. It was now observed, that if in the moment of our utmost need we were to open the ports for the admission of grain free of duty from abroad, the foreign growers, having their stocks bespoken, might not be able to supply us; whereas if we suspended the corn laws before the event came, corn would be specially stored up abroad to supply our market. As the ministry appeared to delay acting on the occasion, Lord John Russell thought fit on the 22d of November to address a letter on the subject to his constituents, the electors of London. It will be remembered that Lord John had formerly proposed a fixed duty on corn—he now advocated the abolition of all duty. “I confess,” he said, “that on the general subject my views have in the course of twenty years undergone a great alteration. I used to be of opinion that corn was an exception to the general rule of political economy; but observation and experience have convinced me that we ought to abstain from all interference with the supply of food. Neither a government nor a legislature can ever regulate the corn market with the beneficial effects which the entire freedom of sale and purchase are sure of themselves to produce.”

3. It subsequently transpired that Sir Robert Peel had seen the emergency, but had been unable to convince his colleagues of the necessity of some immediate remedy—indeed he afterwards stated in parliament that only three of his colleagues agreed with him in the propriety of convening parliament with a view to adopting the necessary measures. Thus situated, Sir Robert resolved to resign, and break up his ministry. Early in December, the queen sent for Lord John Russell, and empowered him to form an administration. After much correspondence and considerable hesitation he agreed to make the attempt. His first difficulty was the fact that his party, the whigs, were but a small proportion of the House

of Commons, and a still smaller of the House of Lords. This difficulty was obviated by an offer from Sir Robert Peel to give his support to an adjustment of the great question of the corn laws. Although they admitted that they did not entirely see their way, Lord John Russell and his friends agreed to form a cabinet, when they met an unexpected difficulty in a personal question with Earl Grey, the son of the nobleman under whose ministry the reform bill had been carried. He had some private reason for not joining the proposed ministry, and Lord John Russell thought his cabinet could so ill afford to dispense with this conspicuous member of his party, that he confessed himself unable to form an administration. Sir Robert Peel then resumed his old position; and though Lord Stanley seceded from his ministry, and joined the party who were the friends of protection, the other members of the cabinet resumed their offices. It was at first understood that Sir Robert advocated a mere suspension of the corn laws during the famine, with the prospect of their restoration—perhaps in a modified shape. Lord John Russell and his party, however, on whose support the ministry had now to depend for carrying their measure, were the advocates of immediate and total repeal. The old friends of free trade saw from these circumstances that the time had now come for striking a decided blow. The league announced that a fund of a quarter of a million would be collected by them, if necessary, for the furtherance of their object, and at one meeting in Manchester sixty thousand pounds were subscribed. Parliament assembled on the 19th of January, and its deliberations were naturally watched with more than usual interest. In the queen's speech, allusion was made to the misery caused by the potato disease, and to the success which had attended the repeal of prohibitory and the relaxation of protective duties. Parliament was then recommended to consider whether the principles on which it had acted might not with advantage be carried farther, so that after a careful review of the existing duties upon many articles the produce or manufacture of other countries, farther reductions and remissions might be made. Ministerial explanations were then given, and Sir Robert Peel made one of the most remarkable speeches ever delivered in any legislative assembly. It was a candid confession that his opinions had undergone a complete change; and while it had a dignified honesty in its admissions, it was at the same time looked upon as a signal instance of the fallibility of the human powers, that a man of honour, of highly cultivated intellect, and of great knowledge, should be put in power for the sake of supporting certain principles, and should find him-

self bound by truth and duty to give effect to views of a totally opposite character. He said he would not deny that his opinions on the subject of protection had undergone a great change. Nor did he feel humiliated by making that confession; on the contrary, he asserted and claimed for himself the privilege of yielding to the force of reason and argument, and of acting upon his own enlarged experience, and upon his more mature conviction. He must confess that a change in his opinions had been forced upon him by the experience of the last three years. During that period he had watched day by day the effect of the relaxation of duties on all the social interests of the country; and the consequence was, that he thought his former arguments no longer tenable. He did not now think that protection of native industry was in itself right and advantageous, nor did he believe that it was impossible for this country to compete with foreigners because it laboured under a heavy debt and severe taxation.

4. It was now evident that the great battle which was either to confirm the protective system or finally extinguish it, was about to commence. On the 27th January, Sir Robert Peel announced his scheme, and stated that he intended to make a still farther reduction on all protective duties. He was not going to attack any one particular interest—on the contrary, he asked all the interests of the country—manufacturing, commercial, and agricultural—to make the sacrifice, if it were one, of their protection to the common good. As to the corn laws, his plan was not to be immediate repeal. Some duties were still to be levied, but they were to cease altogether on 1st February 1849. The duty that he proposed to levy in the meantime was one of 4s. per quarter when the price was 53s., and a slightly increased one when it was less. Almost all other articles of food were to be admitted duty free, and it was represented that the agriculturists would find some compensation in the cheapness of the food of cattle and horses. The duty on foreign timber, which had always been subject to a heavy tax out of favour to home produce and the timber of Canada, was reduced. The duties on foreign spirits were made considerably smaller, and it was part of the measure to let manufactured articles come from abroad at a tax amounting to about 10 per cent. on their value. The parliamentary conflict which followed this announcement was such as had not been witnessed since the great debates on the reform bill. The discussion commenced on the 27th of February, and lasted twelve days. In that time one hundred and three speeches were delivered; and the vote showed a majority in favour of ministers of 337 to 240.

Not only the friends of the late whig cabinet, but Mr Cobden and the other supporters of free trade, advocated the cause of the government. It is necessary that every parliamentary party should have a head or leader in the House of Commons. Driven forth from the government ranks by Sir Robert Peel, it was now the object of the opposers of free trade to find some person who should direct their policy, and take the lead in their debates. They selected Lord George Bentinck, a son of the Duke of Portland—a gentleman who had lived among sportsmen, and had never been accustomed to business. He was thus ill prepared for performing the duties of a statesman, which exposed him to the censure of the experienced politicians, whose enmity he excited by attributing to them bad motives and intentions.

An effort was made, on a motion by Mr Villiers, to make the measure of repeal immediate, but it was lost by a large majority. On the 11th of May, the third reading of the corn bill was carried by 327 to 229; but it had still to encounter opposition in the House of Lords, and much anxiety was felt as to its reception there, not from any fear that in the end it would be lost, but from the extent of unpopularity which the house would cause by opposing it. It was understood that the influence of the Duke of Wellington obviated a great part of the enmity it would there have met with. In a trial of strength, the second reading was carried by 211 to 164; and the act received the royal assent on 26th June.

New battles had, however, still to be fought on the ground of the Tariff. It did not encounter so resolute an opposition as the corn bill, but the struggle was more harassing, since almost every item of it was attacked, and the debate led to frequent divisions, which always terminated in favour of government. On one point, in the House of Lords, they had but a narrow majority. The Duke of Richmond moved that counsel should be heard against the reduction of the silk duties; and there were 74 in favour of and but 78 against his motion.

5. In the meantime, it became clear that the cabinet in doing their duty to the country had sacrificed their own power. They were the objects of an enmity of a peculiar and bitter kind, since they were believed by their old friends to be traitors to their common cause. The protectionists, it was evident, were determined to take vengeance on them, even by joining with the common opponents of both—the old liberal party; and they had speedily an opportunity of putting their views in practice. There had been more than the usual amount of murder and violence in Ireland, and the ministry thought it necessary to bring in a bill granting extraordinary powers for

the protection of life and property. Lord George Bentinck at first announced that the protectionist party would give its hearty support to the government, so long as it showed itself in earnest in putting down murder and preventing assassination in Ireland. As the bill advanced, however, he announced that he had not found them earnest and sincere in their motives, and that his party had come to the resolution that unconstitutional powers, such as those created by the measure, could not be trusted in the hands of persons who had acted as the ministry had done. He accordingly announced the determination of the protectionist party to resist the bill. The liberal party opposed the measure as being more coercive than the occasion required, and Lord John Russell represented that plans of amelioration ought to be adopted in Ireland, so as to render coercion less necessary. The Irish members were on the whole strongly opposed to the measure. The result of all this opposition was, that when a vote was taken for the second reading of the bill, the number in its favour was 219, and that against it was 292, showing a majority of 73 against ministers. This they quite expected; and indeed, having completed the main department of the work of free trade, they had nothing to do but to take the first opportunity of a majority against them to retire. It was a curious coincidence that this defeat occurred on the same evening when the corn law measure was carried in the House of Lords. In announcing the resignation of his ministry, Sir Robert Peel delivered an interesting and remarkable speech. He said, in conclusion, "I shall now close the address which it has been my duty to make, thanking the house sincerely for the favour with which it has listened to this my last address in my official capacity. Within a few hours, probably, that power which I have held for a period of five years will be surrendered into the hands of another. I say it without repining and without complaint—with a more lively recollection of the support and confidence which I have received than of the opposition which during a recent period I have encountered. I shall, I fear, leave office with a name severely censured by many honourable men, who on public principle deeply regret the severance of party ties,—who deeply regret that severance not from any interested or personal motives, but because they believe fidelity to party, the existence of a great party, and the maintenance of a great party, to be powerful instruments of good government. I shall surrender power severely censured, I fear, by many honourable men, who from no interested motives have adhered to the principles of protection because they looked upon them as important to the welfare

and interests of the country. I shall leave a name execrated I know by every monopolist, who, professing honourable opinions, would maintain protection for his own individual benefit. But it may be that I shall be sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in the abodes of men whose lot it is to labour and earn their daily bread with the sweat of their brow: in such places, perhaps, my name may be remembered with expressions of goodwill when they who inhabit them recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

6. The ministry was just able to complete its work, and the public learned at one and the same time the passing of the corn bill in the House of Lords, and the retirement of Sir Robert Peel from office. The new administration was put into the hands of Lord John Russell, who took office as first lord of the treasury. The other principal members of the cabinet were, Lord Cottenham, chancellor; the Marquis of Lansdowne, president of the council; the Earl of Minto, lord privy seal; Sir Charles Wood, chancellor of the exchequer; Sir George Grey, home secretary; Lord Palmerston, foreign secretary; Lord Morpeth, and Mr Macaulay. The office of lord advocate, the holder of which is generally understood to transact the ministerial business for Scotland, was again conferred on Mr Rutherford, who had succeeded Mr Murray. One of the first measures of Lord John Russell's government was to apply the principles of free trade to sugar. It has been already mentioned that a high duty was always levied on that article when it was the produce of foreign states, and a low one when it came from our own colonies. The consequence of this was, that scarcely any foreign sugar came to this country, as the foreigner could not produce the article so much lower than the colonist as the duty he paid was higher. Thus, brown sugar from our colonies was taxed at 14s. per hundred-weight, and when it came from foreign states at £3, 3s., which rendered it necessary that the foreigner should in reality sell it for 49s. less than the colonist, to compete with him in our market. The plan of the new ministry was to make the foreign duty less year by year until it should be on a level with the colonial, and this was fixed to take place in July 1851. The measure was opposed by Lord George Bentinck and the protectionist party, but on a trial of strength in the House of Commons they were beaten by 265 to 135.

The events which have just been detailed affected the whole empire as well as Scotland. A measure passed in the same session of parliament, however, in which the principles

of free trade were carried out solely with reference to this part of Britain, must not be passed over. Of old, when towns got royal charters, it was generally one of the privileges conferred on particular citizens that they only and those admitted into their body could pursue certain trades and occupations. Thus there were generally corporations of shoemakers, of tailors, of hammermen, and the like, who were entitled forcibly to prevent any one from pursuing their business who did not belong to their own body. These privileges, which were sometimes oppressive, and caused a considerable interruption to trade, were abolished by an act of the session of 1846.

Among the distant events which interested the country at this period, the most important was the Sikh war in the East. After the death of Runjeet Singh, who had consolidated a territory to himself among most heterogeneous materials, the Punjaub became a scene of confusion, rivalry, and crime. This very often happens when a clever eastern despot dies, and it gives infinite trouble and uneasiness to peaceful neighbours. The Sikhs made many aggressions on the British territory in the East; and though victory after victory was gained over them, they returned to the attack, nor could they be subdued until the East India government took possession of their territory.

7. It is now necessary to describe a course of wild and profligate speculation, which had the effect, in conjunction with other events, of producing terrible calamities here and in other parts of the world. So early as the year 1845, the extent to which the railway system was carried alarmed the reflecting portion of the community. They had no doubt that in themselves these lines of communication were a great advantage to the country; but they questioned whether there was money enough to complete the gigantic projects which had been planned, and foresaw that many people were investing their money in bad speculations, while others in their reckless pursuit of gain were engaging to advance larger sums than they could afford. In Scotland, the Edinburgh and Glasgow line was already connected with a complete net-work of railways in the south-west. In June 1846, the North British Railway was opened, communicating with England by the east coast, and making the journey between London and Edinburgh one of twelve or fourteen hours. Lines northward through the shires of Fife, Forfar, and Perth, were in progress, and it was contemplated to connect them with Aberdeen and Inverness. The money which the railway bills passed in 1846 authorized to be raised, and which was necessary to carry out the lines, was more than a hundred and thirty-two millions of

pounds sterling—probably a sum more than all the public works of every description have cost through a long course of years in any other country. This too was exclusive of the sums sanctioned in previous years. For instance, the amount in 1845 was between fifty and sixty millions, and it was calculated that upwards of a hundred millions had before that year been already invested in the various lines. The money which parliament authorized to be raised for railways in Scotland alone, in 1846, amounted to upwards of sixteen millions sterling. While all this great expenditure was taking place, exhausting the property of the country in speculations which must take time to repay their projectors, there occurred the failure of the potato crop,—a calamity that would have been sufficient to ruin a poorer country. It had often been said by political economists and agriculturists, that it would be a bad thing for the nation to rely on the potato for its support, as it was liable to vary greatly in its productiveness, and could not be easily transported from place to place like grain. England and the Lowlands of Scotland did not depend on the potato—it was used rather as a luxury than a necessary; but in Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland it formed almost the only food of the Celtic inhabitants. A disease had affected it, as already mentioned, in 1845, and a still greater blight fell on it in 1846. The chancellor of the exchequer in parliament estimated the loss of the potato crop at nearly twelve millions of pounds sterling, and he considered that the deficiency in the crop of grain made an additional loss to the country of four millions. Thus to the wild railway speculation which ruined thousands through their own imprudence was added this direct loss amounting to nearly sixteen millions. At the same time, the weight of the calamity fell so heavily on the wretched population of Ireland, that, besides large sums voluntarily subscribed, parliament authorized an advance of eight millions sterling on the public credit, for the purpose of relieving the distress in that island. Thus the inhabitants of the empire at large, while suffering under the general distress, were able to afford this princely sum to relieve the portion which suffered most—the inhabitants of Ireland. If these poor Irish had not belonged to the same empire as the wealthy merchants and manufacturers and the industrious workmen of Britain, they must have perished by millions. Notwithstanding all the exertions made for them, many died the dreadful death of famine, and multitudes of those who could afford to emigrate left the land in which they were subject to such miseries. At the same time, a famine of a similar kind, and from a like cause, spread through the West Highlands. It was of course

modified by the smallness of the population, for there are only about three hundred thousand inhabitants in the destitute part of Scotland, while in Ireland there are millions. So energetic an effort was made, however, in behalf of the Highlanders, that a committee appointed to relieve them were not only enabled to do so liberally, but in the end found themselves possessed of more than a hundred thousand pounds of surplus money. The country was taught on this occasion how dangerous it is to encourage begging and charitable relief; for it was known that some natives of the districts for which the fund was destined left their employments in the Lowlands, and went home to participate in the charity. When this was observed, it was resolved that in the case of able-bodied persons relief should only be given in return for labour.

Other measures of relief were resorted to, which had the effect of abbreviating the period during which the old restrictions were to be continued. Parliament being early assembled, on the 21st January, Lord John Russell announced that government designed to propose an immediate suspension of the reduced grain tax, then only 4s. a-quarter on wheat, as they held that even that small amount might be an impediment to food being sent into the country. The proposal was supported even by the protectionists, and thus the last vestige of the long cherished corn laws was virtually obliterated by the progress of the famine. In order that there might be no interruption to the importation of food, the navigation laws were also suspended for a time, and ships of all nations allowed to bring it into our ports.

8. The excessive speculation and the loss by the famine began to be severely felt in 1847. Nations are like individuals in feeling the effects of follies and calamities, and Britain was like a person who had first sacrificed his means by extravagant and foolish speculations, and had immediately afterwards sustained a loss by a dispensation of providence. The first symptoms of the evil were in the difficulty which people formerly in good credit felt in obtaining money—it had become scarce, and its possessors required to keep all they had to meet the demands made upon them. Then came bankruptcies among those who could not obtain their usual advances. Great merchants, who were known by their carriages and horses, their liveried servants, and their parks and mansions, became suddenly beggars. Many of them had incurred obligations to the extent sometimes of more than a million of money, which they could not meet, and thus spread bankruptcy and ruin among their creditors. In this way one dragged down another, and those were deemed happy who, though they sus-

tained heavy losses, saved something from the wreck. Thus every class suffered, and it might be questioned which was most to be pitied—the merchant who saw his family reduced from opulence to a condition little better than that of the working classes, or the workman who lost his employment, and saw his children begging or living in the workhouse. The posts which brought to the various towns intelligence of the state of affairs in other places, and especially in London, were watched with intense interest, as none knew what fresh disasters might be expected, and every one who had anything to lose dreaded news of something that might cause his ruin. No order was exempted from the calamity; and so far from landed property being safe, some of the greatest peers and landlords in the country became bankrupt. An attempt was made by Lord George Bentinck and his followers of the protectionist party to attribute these misfortunes to the measures in favour of free trade which had recently been passed; but they failed in establishing this; and indeed through the whole calamitous history, the natural good sense of the people of this country stood very prominently forth, and in all their sufferings and fears they felt that they must trust to their own industry and forethought, as the means under providence of restoring prosperity to the nation and giving employment to the industrious classes. The guide by which the people marked the progress of the panic was the price of government stock. The holders of this stock are the representatives of those who advanced the loans, which are commonly called the National Debt, and it is well known that if they should cease to be paid, all the other property in the country would be in so precarious a state as to be worth little or nothing. The value of the government stock sunk so far, that what in October 1844 was worth rather more than £100, had fallen in the same month of 1847 to £79, 5s.

9. The Bank of England, which was in the practice of advancing money to some traders, had, while the panic was growing, restricted its accommodations in this shape; and many people thought that, being a private company, who could make or lose by taking advantage of the passing events, they had acted selfishly and to the injury of the public. Many also thought that Sir Robert Peel's acts for restricting the amount of notes or paper money used in the country, had some effect on the pecuniary state of the nation, and that at all events the government ought not to have allowed the wild railway speculation to go on at the same time when it was restricting the currency. There is no doubt that the issue of an unlimited quantity of notes will supply money when it is

deficient, though it may be found a severe alternative afterwards, when the paper has to be converted into gold or silver by those who have issued it. It was observed, however, that Britain in the autumn of 1847 might be saved by an issue of notes, just as an exhausted sick man is sometimes saved by spirits or other drugs being administered to him, which do not generally produce a good effect on the constitution, yet sometimes save life when it is much exhausted. In fact, the ministry made up their mind to give relief in this way by infringing the law, trusting that parliament would protect them from punishment for doing so. On the 23d October, Lord John Russell and the chancellor of the exchequer wrote a letter to the governor of the Bank of England. It recommended that the bank should return to its old system of granting loans or accommodations, even though it should be necessary to issue more notes than Sir Robert Peel's act permitted. It stated, that the writers would propose to parliament a bill of indemnity in order to protect the bank from the consequences, if the directors thought fit to follow their recommendation. It must be observed, in reference to this step, that no person in this country, however high his rank, can violate the law even with the best intentions; and though some ministers have, as on this occasion, infringed it, for the sake of protecting a numerous class of the public from imminent danger, yet those who have done so have always run the risk of being punished for an offence, as they certainly would be by the courts of law, unless parliament passed an act excusing and protecting them. In the present instance, the proposal of government to enlarge the issues had an immediate result in restoring confidence. So complete indeed was the effect of the public knowledge that farther accommodations could be obtained, that they were not asked for, and therefore no act of parliament to indemnify the bank for breaking the law was required to be passed. From this time the state of the country gradually improved, and trade and general well-being increased; but it was a long time ere the evils produced by reckless speculation and the potato disease were repaired. These disasters had affected all parts of the empire; but in Scotland they were particularly calamitous in Glasgow, where it was estimated by some statistical inquirers that the capitalists in general had lost one-third of their property. At the same time, the citizens of Aberdeen, and of some other places which had contributed greatly to give Scotland her national character of caution and sagacity, were observed to be very deeply involved in the ruinous schemes of the day, and to suffer corresponding reverses.

10. As the year 1843 had been remarkable in Scotland for a great ecclesiastical division caused by the separation of a large body from the established church, so the year 1847 was conspicuous for the amalgamation of two dissenting bodies which had long kept apart from each other. They consisted of the United Associate Synod and the Relief Synod. The former arose from an event which occurred in 1730, connected with that act for restoring patronage which was subsequently the cause of the formation of the Free Church. Some clergymen—at the head of whom were the two Erskines, Ralph and Ebenezer—would not assist in giving effect to the act restoring patronage. After a dispute of ten years duration, the General Assembly deposed them in 1740, and they with their followers, who afterwards became numerous, took the name of Seceders. A division subsequently arose among them regarding an oath administered to burgesses in corporations; but the cause of separation ceasing, they were again united, and from this circumstance took the name of the United Associate Synod. The other body, the Relief Synod, appeared in 1755. The inhabitants of Jedburgh in that year desired to have for their clergyman the celebrated popular divine, Thomas Boston, author of “The Fourfold State.” The patron of the benefice, however, would not present Mr Boston; and his friends in Jedburgh then invited him to become their pastor. He accepted their offer, and became the founder of a religious body, whose leading principle was, that it afforded relief to those clergymen and congregations of the established church who were opposed to patronage. In the course of years, these two ecclesiastical systems had greatly increased, each having many clergymen with considerable congregations attached to it. For several years they had been negotiating for a union with each other, and on the 13th of May 1847 became one body, with the title of The United Presbyterian Synod. The united body held their first assembly in the same large apartment at Canonmills where the first General Assembly of the Free Church was constituted.

In the legislation of the session of 1847, some very important measures were carried through by Mr Rutherford, the lord advocate, for the improvement of the method of holding and disposing of land in Scotland. All the feudal practices, which had been established of old in order that the vassal enjoying the property might be prepared to fight in support of his chief or superior, were still connected with the system of land rights. The old military arrangements of lord and vassal were not of course kept up practically, but still they remained theoretically, and were the occasion of many useless and expen-

sive forms in selling and transferring land, or borrowing money in security upon it. These evils were greatly modified by the measures alluded to; and at the same time the system of entails was reformed. By the old law, landed proprietors were able to dispose of their estates in such a manner that the owners succeeding them could not be compelled to pay their just debts out of the property. This system, which was considered a great grievance by the commercial classes, and was viewed as an injury to agriculture, because the entailed proprietors had no inducement to lay out money in improvements, was amended in one of the acts above referred to.

11. Some movements were made in the direction of national education in the present session, which excited considerable interest throughout the country. A grant of a hundred thousand pounds was made from the public revenue, to give aid in supporting schools, under certain conditions contained in a minute of the Privy Council. The method in which the money was employed was not in endowing schools, but in helping those otherwise supplied but partially with funds. The distribution was made in connexion with the different religious bodies, according to an arrangement suggested at a conference with some influential dissenters. It was proposed to enlarge the system of the inspection of schools by government officers. Another feature of the scheme was, that, for the purpose of rearing an effective body of future teachers, those who were themselves able and successful were to be intrusted with the duty of training a small number of their select pupils as apprentices to the profession of a schoolmaster. If these were afterwards found unfit for the delicate and important function of the teaching of youth, they were to be drafted into the service of the customs or excise. The main object of this arrangement was evidently to make some progress towards the principle that the state ought to impart education to the people; that, in the words of Mr Macaulay, if the state may *hang*, it may *teach*. Among the religious bodies to which the grant had been extended, the Roman Catholics were not included; but government intimated that there was no rule for their exclusion, and that arrangements would probably be made in their favour. This policy encountered the opposition of some who maintained that it was moral cowardice not at once to include this body, and of others who insisted that they should be altogether passed over in any national grant for the purpose of education. The plan was also attacked from other quarters. A considerable number of persons stood by the principle that education should not be

paid for out of the national revenue, while Mr Hume said he was ashamed to vote seven millions of money for the army, and only a hundred thousand pounds—the seventieth part of it—for education. The system of distributing the money among religious sects was severely censured, as tending to keep alive animosity and religious rivalry. On the whole, however, the discussion gave an impulse to opinions in favour of the spread of education and enlightenment.

12. At the commencement of the year 1848, the country was rapidly recovering from the depression of 1847, and while order and industry flourished at home, there were no disputes of any moment either with domestic parties or governments abroad. The political horizon had never appeared more tranquil, when all at once the newly established electric telegraph conveyed through the nation the astounding intelligence of the French Revolution of the 24th of February. However steady our own institutions might be, it was felt by every one, that a convulsion like this, which subverted a well organized government, and left an excitable nation in a state of anarchy, must be a serious calamity; and so it proved in various shapes. The mercantile distress, which was rapidly passing away, returned; for the convulsions in France, spreading throughout the rest of Europe, paralyzed trade. The transactions of merchants could not be safely carried on with countries which had no settled government, and the idleness and destruction produced by revolutionary outrages deprived the continental nations of the means of dealing with our manufacturers and merchants. Nor was this the only evil that was naturally anticipated from such an event. It was feared that the facility with which established governments were overturned throughout Europe would tempt desperate men in this country to rise against the constitution; and this fear was to some extent justified. There were riotous outbreaks in many of the large towns. On the 6th of March, a mob assembled in Glasgow, and soon assumed a formidable aspect, the magistracy and the police not having taken efficient measures to suppress it at the commencement. It consequently grew hourly in reckless audacity, and gave an opportunity for all the worthless and degraded classes of that large city to exercise their destructive and dishonest propensities. As no respectable body of the citizens joined in the outbreak, it did not assume a political aspect. The chief object of the rioters, indeed, was the plunder of private property, which was perpetrated to a considerable extent. The lamentable end of this outbreak by the most degraded part of the population was, that at last the military

were authorized by the civil magistrate to act, and some people were killed. Contemporary with these tumults in Glasgow, risings occurred in Edinburgh and other towns, but they were mere momentary riots, and were easily put down. There were more formidable appearances in London and the large English towns. The events abroad had not unnaturally excited the chartists, who had almost ceased to be known, to attempt some great movement; and they held what they called a convention in London. It was observed that as this body had only been called into existence by a spirit of imitation, raised by the events in France, its members were not so respectable or honest a class of men as those who made an attempt to establish such a body without any foreign example in 1839. Indeed it was generally remarked, that as the people of this country take their own independent course in political affairs, and do not care to be dictated to in any shape by foreigners, it was only the refuse of the large towns that followed up the French Revolution by attempts at insurrection in Britain. The dislike of all respectable people, whether of the middle or working classes, to any convulsion, was signally shown in London. On the 10th of April, a chartist demonstration had been arranged on such a scale that there were good reasons to fear an insurrection by the dangerous classes. The citizens of London having been prepared for this, the consequence was, that while only about twenty thousand chartists assembled, the streets of the metropolis were protected by two hundred thousand special constables consisting of the middle and working classes. The same determined spirit was echoed throughout the country, and there never was a time when the community showed so unanimous a disposition to stand by the institutions under which they had enjoyed such a large share of liberty and prosperity.

13. Within the island of Great Britain there was now little source of uneasiness. The possibility of some new foreign convulsion creating a war, of course made the people of this country sometimes uneasy about foreign politics. In Ireland, too, there were considerable grounds for alarm. The agitation for repeal again started into life, and it did so in a worse shape than the former, for Daniel O'Connell, who had always managed the Irish agitations with caution, was dead. The new agitation caused great alarm throughout the empire, for, if its leaders were to be believed, they had an army organized and supplied, and were ready to take the field. It proved, however, that a small body of policemen suppressed the only effort actually made to rise in rebellion. Mr Smith O'Brien, Mr John Mitchell, and some other persons who were

the main instigators of this attempt, were punished by transportation.

As there were still deficiencies in the revenue, government intimated an intention to increase the income-tax; but the proposal was not well received by the people. It was thought in some quarters that in the midst of the surrounding revolutions, the government should supply itself with large resources to meet emergencies; but the middle and indeed the working classes took up so steady and firm a position against the revolutionary spirit, that it was considered unnecessary to increase the tax. The country remained in a state of depression and alarm, not so much from the dread of any outbreak at home, as from the disturbed condition of almost all the continental governments, which created a perpetual fear of a general war, and greatly interrupted trade. These nations were themselves of course much greater sufferers than we were; but when so much of a people's well-being depends upon commerce, all the nations of Europe partake in each other's prosperity or adversity. Trade was limited, and the revenue decreased so materially that there was a general cry for retrenchment in the national expenditure, by reducing redundant salaries and by other economical arrangements.

Towards the end of the year 1848, Scotland was visited by the Asiatic cholera, which extended its ravages over the greater part of the island during 1849. Much had been learned about the operations of this dreadful scourge since the time when it first desolated Europe. Medical science had made little progress in the art of curing it; but the causes which predispose a population to suffer from the malady had been amply investigated. It was found that wherever the human frame was debilitated by vice, by filthy habits, or by the near vicinity of nuisances, its ravages were greatest. Much attention was thus directed towards sanitary measures, or those which conduce to health by the removal of whatever tends to impair it, and thus to shorten life. It was understood, that though cholera was the most deadly form of disease which the want of cleanliness encouraged, it was not the only one, and that the fearful accumulation of impurities which were found in the centres of our large cities, were the fruitful causes of every species of calamity. An act for the accomplishment of sanitary arrangements in England had been passed before cholera appeared, and arrangements were made for adapting such a system to Scotland.

14. There still remained in the session of 1849 another battle to be fought on a question of Free Trade. The navigation laws had been established in the seventeenth century, with

the view of injuring the commerce of Holland to the advantage of Britain. Their general principle was to limit all commercial intercourse with this country and the colonies to vessels built in the British dominions, and owned and navigated by British subjects. When such a restriction as this was placed upon the import and export trade of so large a territory, there was of course a considerable part of the traffic from which foreigners were necessarily excluded. The system was from time to time considerably relaxed. An exception was made in favour of vessels coming from the country where the commodity was produced, and not from another merely for the purpose of carrying it. Other exceptions were introduced by what is called the reciprocity system, in favour of countries allowing privileges to British vessels. Still, however, the restriction operated to a considerable extent down to 1849. It had the effect of raising the price of commodities, by giving a monopoly to our own shipowners, and refusing to employ others who might undertake to convey the goods for a smaller hire. But it had a farther injurious effect. It often happened that a foreigner, having conveyed a cargo in which he was entitled to trade to some port, might see there goods well suited to the British market, but not being privileged to remove them, would be under the necessity of leaving the place with an empty vessel, while the expense was incurred of sending out another duly privileged to carry them. The main argument used in favour of the navigation laws was, that they materially aided the national defence by increasing the number of British seamen, and that if they were repealed they would transfer this encouragement to strangers—perhaps our enemies. On the other hand it was maintained, that our commerce would always preserve its natural superiority, and instead of falling off, our shipping would probably be increased, as other nations following our example would remove their restrictions from our vessels. The bill brought in for the repeal of the navigation laws contained a clause to enable the privy council to restrict the privileges of foreign ships when there was a proper cause for doing so. The third reading of the bill was carried in the House of Commons by a majority of 61. It was again feared that on this important question some collision might take place between the two branches of the legislature; and it was even rumoured that the House of Lords would show a majority against the measure. The government, however, took a firm stand, announcing that it would resign if the bill were thrown out; and a number of the peers, remembering the interests they had at stake in the preservation of order and tranquillity, were averse in

such troubled times to drive out of power a party who were supported both by their own friends and those of Sir Robert Peel, and to trust the government to the protectionist party, on whose discretion and experience the country had little reliance. The measure was carried, but only by the narrow majority of ten on its second reading; and it received the royal assent on the 26th of June. In this manner was the last of the main objects of the free trade party carried, and the country was relieved from the fear of a ministerial crisis.

On the 2d of December, died Adelaide of Saxe Meiningen, the wife of William the Fourth, and the queen dowager of the British empire. Since the king's death she had lived a quiet retired life, in the enjoyment of a large income from the nation amounting to a hundred thousand pounds a-year; but she occupied herself so much in deeds of beneficence and kindness, that a considerable part of her revenue returned to the public in the form of well distributed charity. She had suffered a good deal of obloquy at the time of the passing of the Reform bill, because she was believed to have influenced her husband against that measure and the liberal party, but these suppositions were afterwards seen to be unfounded. She left instructions for her funeral, written nine years before her death, in which she said, "I die in all humility, knowing that we are all alike before the throne of God, and I request therefore that my mortal remains may be conveyed to the grave without any pomp or state." These sentiments were well calculated to affect the public mind, and to cause a reaction against some expensive pomps and vanities which, by tradition and old practice, had been followed in all things connected with the court.

The close of the year 1849 saw the country in profound tranquillity—with no disorders within and no enemies without, while her trade and enterprise were emerging from the catastrophes of previous years. The subject that in Scotland chiefly occupied public attention at this time was a comprehensive system of national education; but great diversity of opinion prevailed as to the proper means to be adopted for the attainment of so desirable an object.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the nature of the old poor law of Scotland when compared with that of England? Give an account of the change made in it. What other subject peculiarly relating to Scotland was discussed? What arguments were used against university tests?

2. What alterations in the revenue system were made in 1845? What was the nature and what were the proceedings of the Anti Corn Law League? What motion was made by Mr Cobden? What calamity hurried on the question of repeal of the corn laws? What did Lord John Russell do?

3. What was the conduct of Sir Robert Peel? Who attempted to form an administration? How was he prevented from doing so? How was the government conducted? What did the Anti Corn Law League do? What remarkable course of conduct did Sir Robert Peel follow?

4. What great discussion came on? How did the ministry propose to deal with the corn laws? Describe the other commercial changes introduced by them. How were they received in parliament? What new party was formed, and who was its leader? What took place in the House of Lords? What was the fate of the tariff changes?

5. What was the effect of these changes on the cabinet? Who were actuated by hostility to ministers? In connexion with what measure did they show it? What was the effect of their opposition? Give an account of the remarks of Sir Robert Peel on quitting office.

6. Who was at the head of the new administration? Who were his colleagues? What was the first proceeding of the ministry? Give an account of the change proposed in the sugar duties. What was the nature of the old exclusive privileges of trades? When were they abolished? What war was in progress in the East?

7. What sort of speculation had begun to create alarm? How far had railway communication made progress in Scotland? Give an account of the mania for speculation. What misfortune increased its effect? Where did the calamity fall heaviest? What measures were taken by the rest of the community to mitigate it? What was done as to the corn laws?

8. How did the effects of over-speculation and the famine first show themselves? Describe their effect on the several classes of the public. What attempt was made to attribute the evils to the legislation on free trade? What was the effect of the depression on public stock?

9. What was the course of conduct adopted by the Bank of England? What was attributed to Sir Robert Peel's restriction acts? How was it supposed that an issue of notes would act? What was done in conformity with this supposition? What was its effect?

10. What remarkable event occurred in Scotland in 1847? What was the origin of the United Associate Synod? What was that of the Relief Synod? Under what name did they become one body? What was the nature of the alterations passed relating to the law affecting landed property?

11. What was done to further national education? How was the sum applied to the purpose distributed? What reception did the government scheme receive from the various parties?

12. In what state was the country at the beginning of 1848? What event created alarm? How was it that the convulsions on the continent injured this country? Describe the manner in which the people generally conducted themselves. What exceptions were there?

13. What occurred in Ireland to create alarm? How was the cause of it suppressed? What took place as to the income tax? What epidemic visited Scotland in 1848? What was known as to its causes, and how they might be removed?

14. What measure remained to be passed for the completion of free trade? Describe the old navigation laws. What were the opinions about repealing them? Give an account of the progress of the measure for their repeal. What death occurred in the royal family? What project was strongly urged toward the close of the year 1849?

OUTLINE

OF THE

BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

SECTION I.

Origin and Progress.

1. LIKE the government of almost all rude states, the constitutions of England and of Scotland were, from the earliest periods to which history extends, monarchical. The feudal system was early introduced in both parts of the island; and as it is the root whence our legislature has sprung, and is still a practical portion of our law, some slight notice of its nature and of the manner in which it was incorporated with our institutions will be a necessary introduction to the details which follow. The first principle of the feudal law is, that the sovereign is nominally the proprietor of all the lands inhabited by his subjects or followers, and that those who actually hold the lands in their possession, merely retain the use of them under him, in return for certain services; just as a tenant holds his farm under the condition of paying a certain rent to the landlord. It is true that at the present day every landed proprietor holds his property independently of the sovereign, and that this feudal superiority or seigniority is merely a nominal ingredient in the form of the title. Like most other institutions, however, which exist only in name, it was once in full force; the monarch granting estates to his followers under certain conditions, and reclaiming them when these were not fulfilled. However it may have had its origin, the practice of the system was principally developed on the occasion of a conquest, when the commander, dividing the subjected territory among his soldiers as the reward of their exertions, burdened the gift with the condition, that the person obtaining it should still remain his vassal and follower. It is a matter of dispute

whether the feudal system had taken root among the Saxons of Britain before the Norman Conquest. Undoubtedly there were then instances in which estates were granted on condition of military service;* and such a method of remuneration must be common wherever there is land to be disposed of. Where the feudal system is full grown, however, it is a necessary attribute of land, that it should be held only as the gift of the sovereign. If it has not really been bestowed by him, it is presumed by law to have been so; and certainly the feudal system in this sense did not exist in England until after the Norman Conquest, when William I. divided a great portion of the lands of the conquered Saxons among his followers.† Lands thus distributed by military leaders were called fiefs or fees. They seem to have been at first bestowed for a short period, afterwards for life, and finally to have become hereditary,‡ the heir succeeding on the condition of performing those services for which the land was originally granted. The sovereign was not the only person who thus created vassals,—whoever held under him a larger quantity of land than he could apply to the use of his own family, gave portions of it to sub-vassals, under conditions similar to those by which he himself held; and there might be thus many grades of lord and vassal. The practice of sub-feuing was prohibited in England in 1290.§ It still continues to be practised in Scotland; but the return which is exacted by the superior or lord is no longer military aid, but money; and thus a person may dispose of land to another in such a form that he and his descendants, in virtue of their superiority, shall receive an annual sum from those who enjoy the actual possession of it under the name of vassals.

2. The importance of knowing these apparently inconsiderable details will be at once felt, when it is remembered that our parliament had its origin in this method of holding lands. Among the Saxons there was a national assembly called the Wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men, with whom the sovereign consulted, and without whose permission he could transact few matters of importance.|| This assembly did not outlive the Conquest, but it has to be observed, that William, though he was able to alter the outward aspect of many of the

* See Palgrave's *English Commonwealth*, Ap. ccxx. and cccclxviii.

† Dalrymple on the *History of Feudal Property*, chap. i. Meyer, *Institutions Judiciaires*, tome i.

‡ Cragii *Jus Feudale*, lib. i., dieg. iv. Meyer, tome i. chap. 12 & 14.

§ 18 Edward I. c. 1.

|| Hallam's *Middle Ages*, vol. ii. p. 388.

institutions of the country, and to create a revolution in the property, could not uproot the spirit of the Saxon institutions,—a fact remarkably illustrated by the circumstance, that the Saxon language lived through all attempts to crush it. The very Norman barons themselves were affected by the spirit of those institutions, and insensibly adopted their practice. It was the custom of the feudal monarchs to form their vassals into a sort of court or council, for the purpose of consulting them as to matters relating to the landed property in which they held a common interest. When the vassals of the Norman kings were thus assembled in Britain, it was natural that they should gradually assume powers beyond those for which they might be originally assembled, and insensibly slide into the authority of the Saxon Wittenagemot. It was thus that a supreme council, consisting of the grand landholders, was formed around the sovereign, while the same practice made each of the members of it a subordinate chief, who had his own council of vassals, owing a joint obedience to him and to his sovereign. In other countries, the government of which arose from feudal institutions, the monarch was in general comparatively feeble, the greater aristocracy were almost his rivals, and the people were debased under their tyranny. In Britain, while the barons were far from being powerless, the people retained, in their Saxon institutions, considerable influence, which it was of importance for the monarch to uphold. The throne was thus strengthened, while the liberties of the people were secured, the nobles protecting them from the power of the crown, while *they* assisted the monarch in preserving subordination among the nobles.*

3. A king and an hereditary aristocracy thus present themselves to the most cursory view as the first elements of our political constitution. The origin of the Commons, or third estate, is involved in greater darkness, and has not yet been fully developed by all the learning and industry of our ablest lawyers, antiquaries, and historians. Coke, Brady, Blackstone, Millar, and Hallam, have expended their diligence on this point, but without bringing their labours to that satisfactory result which we are desirous to attain on a question of so much importance. Following the last-named of these writers, we may observe, that the first instance of actual representation which occurs in English history took place about four years after the Conquest, when William caused twelve persons, skilled in the customs of the nation, to be chosen from each county, who were bound by oath to inform him

* Meyer, tome i. chap. 17.

rightly of their laws; and these, so ascertained, were ratified by the consent of the great council. This, says a learned writer, was "as sufficient and effectual a parliament as ever was held in England."* But there is no appearance that these twelve deputies from each county were invested with any authority higher than that of declaring their ancient usages. No stress can be laid on this anomalous and insulated assembly. In the fifteenth year of King John, an example occurs which has likewise been regarded as an instance of county-representation. His majesty instructs the sheriffs to summon certain knights and barons to assemble at Oxford upon a given day; adding, "Send up *four discreet knights* from your county to hold a conference with us respecting the affairs of our kingdom."—"But it remains problematical," says Mr Hallam, "whether these four knights were to be elected by the county, or to be returned in the nature of a jury at the discretion of the sheriff."†

4. The next trace which we find of parliamentary representation, is a writ, dated the thirty-eighth of Henry III., being the year 1254. "This, after reciting that the earls, barons, and other great men, were to meet at London three weeks after Easter with horses and arms, for the purpose of sailing into Gascony, requires the sheriff to compel all within his jurisdiction, who hold twenty pounds a-year of the king in chief, or of those in ward of the king, to appear at the same time and place. And that, besides those mentioned, he shall cause to come before the king's council at Westminster, on the fifteenth day after Easter, two good and discreet knights of his county, whom the men of the county shall have chosen for this purpose, in the stead of all and each of them, to consider, along with the knights of other counties, what aid they will grant the king in such an emergency."‡ Mr Hallam observes, that "in the principle of election and in the object of the assembly, which was to grant money, this certainly resembles a summons to parliament."§

5. "At length," says the same author, "in the year 1265, the forty-ninth of Henry III., while he was a captive in the hands of Simon de Montfort, writs were issued in his name to all the sheriffs, directing them to return two knights for the body of their county, with two citizens or burgesses for every city and borough contained within it. This, therefore,

* Sir M. Hale, *Hist. of Com. Law*, vol. i. p. 202.

† *Middle Ages*, vol. iii. p. 20.

‡ Prynne, as quoted by Hallam, vol. iii. p. 21.

§ *Ibid.*

is the epoch at which the representation of the commons becomes indisputably manifest; even should we reject altogether the more equivocal instances of it which have just been enumerated."* The usual motive for summoning the earlier parliaments was to obtain grants of supplies. Although the sovereign had other sources of revenue at his command, the principle of applying to the commons for further assistance put an instrument into their hands, which they soon used for other purposes. It became a common practice, before a grant was voted, to inquire into the manner in which previous sums had been disbursed, and also to demand redress of grievances. The king could thus seldom undertake any expedition involving expense, without conceding some privilege to his subjects.

6. One of the most frequent and important demands of the parliament, was the confirmation of *Magna Charta* or the great charter, which the barons had obtained from King John. Sir Edward Coke reckons thirty instances in which it has been ratified, and it was slightly amended in the reign of Henry III. In this celebrated document there are provisions which protect the vassals both of the king and of the barons from excessive and arbitrary exactions, restrict the tyrannical laws for the preservation of game in the royal forests, and give franchises to towns, and the freedom of commerce to foreign merchants. By its most important clauses, however, justice is neither to be sold nor denied, and no man is to be affected either in person or goods, except by judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.† It is essential to the spirit of this last clause that no one be detained in prison without trial; but the definition being somewhat vague, the law was more accurately fixed by the celebrated act of Charles II., called the *Habeas Corpus* Act, from the two Latin words with which the writ (or the command through which it is enforced) commences.‡

7. It appears, from the brief outline now given, that the British constitution consists of three separate parts,—the monarch, the lords, and the commons; all of them intrusted with distinct powers, and invested with separate means of enforcing their authority.

EXERCISES.

1. What has been the nature of the governments of England and of Scotland from the earliest period? Explain the nature and supposed origin of

* Hallam, vol. iii. p. 22.

† See *Magna Charta* as confirmed by 9 Henry III.; and Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. iv. pp. 423, 424.

‡ 31 Charles II. c. 2.

the feudal system. Did it exist in full perfection among the Saxons? What did the Conquest effect with regard to it? In what form does the feudal system still exist in Scotland?

2. What connexion has the feudal system with the British constitution? Explain the nature of the connexion which this system and the Saxon Wittenagemot had with the origin of parliament. Show the difference between the effects produced by the feudal system in this and in other countries, and tell the reason of it.

3. When did the first supposed instance of representation take place? What was its nature? Describe a circumstance in the reign of King John which is likewise presumed by some to be an instance of representation.

4. What is the next trace of representation? Describe it.

5. When and under what circumstances does representation become indisputably manifest? What was the usual motive for summoning the earlier parliaments? How did the parliaments make their power of granting supplies conducive to the public good?

6. How many times is Magna Charta reckoned to have been ratified? What are its principal provisions? What is its most important clause? When and by what act was the spirit of this clause rendered more efficacious?

7. Of how many parts does the constitution consist, and what are they?

SECTION II.

The Sovereign.

1. THE crown of England has, at least since the Norman Conquest, been hereditary; that is to say, on the death of the holder it has devolved on that person who, according to the principles of the feudal law, would have succeeded to the inheritance had it been landed property. The principle of the feudal succession, it will be readily perceived, was not so much to divide the goods of the deceased among his children, as to find a vassal able to protect the property; and so the eldest son, when there was one, was always preferred. Among the nations which acknowledged the authority of this system, the practice as to the succession of females was various. Where the Salique Law prevailed, as in France, a female could not succeed, and no woman has ever sitten on the throne of that country. In Britain, on the other hand, when there are two or more females of the same degree of relationship to the deceased, and no male intervening, the estate is divided among them. But this practice has never been adopted in the succession to the crown either in England or Scotland. On the contrary, the rule has been, that one person only can succeed, and that males are preferred to females. When the monarch, on his death, therefore, leaves behind him two sons, the elder succeeds, to the exclusion of the younger; when he leaves a son and a daughter, the son succeeds, to the exclusion of the daughter; when he leaves two daughters and no sons, the elder succeeds; if he leave a daughter and a brother, the daughter succeeds. If there are no children, the collateral relations (*viz.* the brothers

and sisters) succeed in the same order : and an instance of such succession occurred on the death of Edward VI., who was succeeded by his sisters Mary and Elizabeth, the former, who was the elder of the two, preceding the latter.

2. The principle of representation is adopted in the succession of the crown in the same manner as in that of landed property. In other words, if a person who would succeed to the crown in the case of his outliving the reigning monarch die before him, the heir of that person will succeed in the same manner as if his immediate ancestor had died monarch. Thus Richard II. succeeded his grandfather Edward III., in right of his father the Black Prince, to the exclusion of all his uncles, his grandfather's younger children; George III. succeeded to his grandfather, to the exclusion of his uncle the Duke of Cumberland; and Queen Victoria, being the only child of the Duke of Kent (who, as next eldest brother to William IV., would have succeeded had he been alive at the death of that monarch), ascended the throne, to the exclusion of her uncles and cousins. It is worthy of remark, that, in the earlier periods of our history, the system of representation seems not to have been distinctly admitted; the nearness of the relationship being sometimes held the rule. Thus John succeeded to his brother Richard I., in prejudice of Arthur, the son of his elder brother. It will be recollected that a dispute of this description in Scotland was the cause of those dissensions which occasioned the invasion by Edward I. Indeed, it may be observed, that when we go far back into history, we find that personal influence or popular choice had much effect in deciding the succession, and that the hereditary principle arose by degrees, and required to be strengthened by repeated practice before it became a settled branch of the constitution.*

3. Such is the nature of the succession as fixed by practice; but the system so established is considered alterable by parliament, which, as the supreme court of the country, has on several occasions sanctioned a departure from it. Thus, an act of the seventh year of Henry IV. secures the succession to his heirs, though he had obtained the crown to the prejudice of an elder branch of the family.† The well-known revolution of 1688 was confirmed by a resolution of the two houses of parliament met in convention, "that King James II. having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people, and,

* See Allen's Inquiry into the Rise and Growth of the Royal Prerogative, p. 48.

† 7 Henry IV. c. 2.

by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant.”* King James had at that time an infant son, who, in the regular course of succession, would have filled the throne; but parliament, passing him over, called on his daughter the Princess Mary, and her husband the Prince of Orange, to hold a joint rule, which devolved on the prince alone, who outlived his wife. It was agreed that the succession should go, on the death of both, to the children of the queen, then to her younger sister, the princess Anne, and *her* offspring; and, finally, failing them, to the children of William.† William and Mary both died without issue, and Anne succeeded. This queen had several children, who died young; and on its being found that she was not likely to leave heirs, the succession was settled on the Princess Sophia (daughter of Elizabeth, queen of Bohemia, daughter of James I.) and her heirs, being protestants.‡ This princess died before Queen Anne, and her son, George I., the elector of Hanover, the immediate ancestor of the present reigning family, succeeded. It has to be observed, that by this settlement, not only were the direct descendants of King James II. passed over, but those of Henrietta, the daughter of Charles I., who married the Duke of Orleans. Many of her descendants are at present scattered over Europe, who, if the succession had not been so altered, would have succeeded on the death of the last grandson of King James II., who died without heirs. By an act of the reign of William III., no person who is a Roman Catholic, or married to one of that persuasion, can enjoy the crown of Britain.§ By an act of the 12th George III., called the Royal Marriage Act, those members of the royal family who continue connected with this country are prohibited from marrying without consent of the monarch in council; but though a proposed marriage be not sanctioned by such consent, it may be contracted after twelve months’ notice to the privy council, unless both houses of parliament declare their disapprobation.||

4. It is a maxim of the constitution, that the king never dies. The meaning of this is, that though the person who fills the throne may die, the several official persons who act in the name of the king continue to perform their duties in the name of the successor, who is monarch from the moment

* Commons’ Journals, quoted by Blackstone, vol. i. p. 211.

† 1 William and Mary, sess. 2, c. 2.

‡ 12 and 13 William III., c. 2.

§ 1 William and Mary, sess. 2, c. 2.

|| 12 George III. c. 11.

when the previous sovereign expires. Acts may be done in the name of a king, five or six hundred miles from the place where he is,—and even in the most distant colonies, the persons who transact them being ignorant that the king, in whose name they think they are acting, is dead; but the acts are not the less valid, and are held as done in the name of the successor. When William IV. died, there were several acts of parliament ready to receive the royal assent. To save the trouble and delay of carrying them again through parliament, they received the assent of the queen, and a short act was passed to explain those passages which spoke of the king as yet alive.* When the monarch leaves the country, or becomes unable, from mental disease or other causes, to transact business, it is usual for parliament to appoint a regent or lords-justices. On the accession of Queen Victoria, a statute was passed appointing some of the great officers of state to act as lords-justices or governors of the kingdom, in case of the death of her majesty during the absence of the next heir.†

5. Although the next heir is monarch from the moment of his predecessor's death, yet it is usual to go through the form of a coronation, at some convenient period after the accession. This ceremony is now little more than a formality; but in times when the monarch had much more personal influence than he now possesses, it was held as the ratification of a solemn contract between him and his people. It was the act of inauguration to his rank and privileges, and no public measure could pass in his name until it had taken place.‡ This is a principle which would now be productive of much inconvenience, and is not necessary for the protection of the public. At the coronation, however, it is still usual for the monarch to take an oath in the following terms:—

“The archbishop or bishop shall say, ‘Will you solemnly promise and swear to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same?’ The king or queen shall say, ‘I solemnly promise so to do.’

“Archbishop or bishop. ‘Will you, to your power, cause law and justice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?’ King or queen. ‘I will.’

“Archbishop or bishop. ‘Will you, to the utmost of your power, maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the

* 7 William IV. and 1 Victoria, c. 60.

† 7 William IV. and 1 Victoria, c. 72.

‡ Allen on the Royal Prerogative, p. 48, and Sir Harris Nicolas' Chronology of History, p. 277.

gospel, and the protestant reformed religion established by the law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by law do or shall appertain unto them, or any of them?" *King or queen.* 'All this I promise to do.'

"*After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy Gospels, shall say, 'The things which I have here before promised I will perform and keep: So help me God.' And then shall kiss the book.'*"*

Besides this oath, which is taken at the *coronation*, it is provided by the act of Union, that at his *accession* the king shall take and subscribe an oath to preserve the protestant religion and presbyterian church-government in Scotland, and another to preserve the settlement of the church of England and Ireland;† and he generally does so at the first meeting of the privy council.

6. The sovereign is nominally the source of all public acts, whether legislative—in making laws; judicial—in deciding upon their application in particular cases; or executive—in putting the laws in force. All acts of parliament are issued in his name, but they are only binding when they are passed "by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal in parliament assembled." All decisions in the courts of law are given in his name, but then they are only binding when administered by the proper judges; and it was found so early as the reign of James I. of England, that it was not lawful for the king himself to sit in judgment. In the same manner, when judges have given their decisions in civil or criminal actions, these decisions are put in force in name of the monarch; but the more important acts of this nature can only be performed by certain acknowledged and responsible officials, and in all cases the warrant of the judge is the sole authority for acting, and must be strictly obeyed.

7. Besides these acts, which are merely done in his name, there are others which spring directly from his authority, or, as it is termed, his prerogative. He has the right to pardon criminals; he may grant charters of incorporation, enabling communities of persons to transact business under a common name with the same freedom as individuals; he is guardian of the seashore, and of all ports and havens; he is commander of all forces whether on land or sea, however raised. It belongs also to the kingly office to appear as the

* Blackstone, vol. i. p. 235.

† 5 Anne, c. 8, art. 25, sect. 11.

representative of the nation in all transactions with foreign states, and in pursuance of this authority, he commissions ambassadors to represent the empire abroad, and receives the proposals of those from other nations. He is empowered to make treaties, leagues, and alliances with other nations and princes; it being essential to the validity of all such contracts that they be made by the sovereign power; and in England the sovereign power, in that respect, is vested in the person of the monarch. It necessarily follows, that he possesses the sole power of declaring peace and war. The king is the acknowledged head "on earth" of the church of England and Ireland. The church of Scotland maintains that she is independent of any branch of the civil power; but a commissioner, appointed by the sovereign, attends the General Assembly, which does not hold meetings in his absence. The Assembly meets and disperses annually at fixed periods, and it is usual for the commissioner and the moderator mutually to adjourn the sittings to the next customary period, without the one noticing the adjournment made by the other.

8. It is a maxim of the constitution that the king can do no wrong; of which the practical meaning is, that he is not personally responsible for the acts done in his name. There are, however, no public measures, either carried through by others in his name, or even professedly done by himself, which are not in reality the act of some official person, who is responsible to the community. Thus, the lord-chancellor who sets the great seal to a treaty of peace, or the secretary of state who signs a proclamation by the king in council, would respectively be responsible for the consequences.* The way in which this responsibility is constitutionally enforced is by impeachment, the commons acting as prosecutors and the lords as judges. It is no defence to an official person, that he acts by command of the monarch, for no one is bound to hold office but on his own conditions; and thus, notwithstanding the irresponsibility of the king, the public have a remedy against abuses of the prerogative. Indeed, it would appear that, in ruder ages, before this more complicated species of responsibility was resorted to, the king was considered, like every other person, amenable to the ordinary courts of law,† though it may be questioned whether he would have paid much respect to their decision against him. The sovereign has two great councils, with which he may advise as occasion demands: *First*, The peers of the realm. These, however, it

* Hallam's Constitutional History, vol. iii. p. 250, et seq.

† Allen on the Royal Prerogative, p. 100.

has not of late been customary to convoke for such a purpose. *Second*, The privy council. This body consists of such persons as he may be pleased to nominate. The leading men of each administration are generally appointed privy councillors, and the rank is frequently conferred as a mark of distinction. Hence, there are many members of the council who may be opposed to the measures of the ministry in existence, and whom it would be unjust to make responsible for their acts. It has, for some time past, been the custom for the monarch to select some members of the council as his particular advisers. These constitute the cabinet, and form the ministry of the day. The other privy councillors are not in the habit of meeting or taking any concern with public business, unless their presence is required by a summons. Perhaps the last case in which a privy councillor took a share in the proceedings of the cabinet without being specially invited to do so was in the emergency created by the death of Queen Anne.*

9. The most powerful practical protection, however, which the country enjoys, against the abuse of power on the part of the monarch and his servants, is in the right of the commons to refuse the supplies, from which the army and navy, and all the officers of the crown, are paid. This subject will be more fully considered in another place; but it may be well to subjoin a brief view of its general reference to the power of the crown, a task which cannot be better effected than in the words of an eminent foreigner, who was the first to draw the general attention of the world to the working of the British constitution. "The king of England has the prerogative of commanding armies and equipping fleets; but without the concurrence of his parliament he cannot maintain them. He can bestow places and emoluments; but without his parliament he cannot pay the salaries attending on them. He can declare war; but without his parliament it is impossible for him to carry it on. In a word, the royal prerogative, destitute as it is of the power of imposing taxes, is like a vast body which cannot of itself accomplish its motions; or, if you please, it is like a ship completely equipped, but from which the parliament can at pleasure draw off the water, and leave it aground, and also set it afloat again by granting subsidies."†

10. The sovereign is intrusted with the power of calling, assembling, proroguing, and dissolving parliament. The legislature is summoned by the king's writ or letter, issued out

* Coxe's Sir Robert Walpole, vol. i. p. 50.

† De Lolme on the Constitution, edit. 1834, p. 66.

of chancery by advice of the privy council. The writ must be issued forty days before the commencement of the session,* and this period has, since the union with Scotland, been in practice extended to fifty days.† When a parliament is in existence, but prorogued, it may be assembled by proclamation on fourteen days' notice.‡ It is a branch of the royal prerogative, that no parliament can be convened by its own authority, nor by any authority except that of his majesty. On occasions of emergency, however, the parliament has been in use to convene or meet of its own accord, and it did so at the period of the Revolution.

11. The king is farther regarded by the constitution as the fountain of honour, of office, and of privilege; "and this," says Blackstone, "in a different sense from that wherein he is styled the fountain of justice; for here he is really the parent of them. And, therefore, all degrees of nobility, of knighthood, and other titles, are received by immediate grant from the crown; either expressed in writing, by writs, or letters patent, as in the creation of peers and baronets, or by corporeal investiture, as in the creation of a simple knight."§ The monarch may create any description of dignity; thus James I. of England founded the rank of baronet, coming between that of a peer of the realm and of a knight. He may also dictate the order of precedence, and may give an individual a patent of precedence over others, without bestowing on him any nominal rank. He cannot, however, alter the order of precedence of the nobility and great officers of state of England, which is fixed by statute.||

12. For the maintenance of the expenses connected with the crown, it is customary, on the accession of each sovereign, to set apart an annual sum, the application of which is known by the name, "The Civil List." Before the Restoration, the crown had the whole control over the expenditure of the revenue; but, after that event, a particular portion of it was set aside for the support of the civil government, as distinguished from the military department. To meet the former, it was usual to set apart the produce of certain taxes, and other sources of revenue, the annual value of which was of course uncertain; parliament agreeing, however, to make up the deficiency if it did not amount to a certain sum. On the accession of George III., in place of

* 7 and 8 William III., c. 25. † Blackstone, edit. 1836, vol. i. p. 150, N. 4.

‡ 33 George III., c. 127.

§ Blackstone, vol. i. pp. 271, 272.

|| 31 Henry VIII., c. 10.

the uncertain returns of taxes, a civil list of £800,000 a-year was granted,* which was afterwards gradually increased, till it reached £1,030,000.† There was a separate civil list for Ireland. This fund, besides the expenses connected with the royal family and household, provided for the outlay occasioned by the civil government, such as, the salaries of the judges, the great officers of state, and the speaker of the house of commons. On the accession of George IV., some branches of expenditure connected with the civil list were removed, and the amount was fixed at £850,000 in England, and £207,000 in Ireland.‡ On the accession of William IV., it was farther limited to the expenses connected with the royal household, and the amount granted was £510,000, payable from the general revenue of the country.§ On the accession of Queen Victoria, the sum voted was £385,000, the application of which was fixed as follows:—For the queen's privy purse £60,000; salaries connected with the household, £131,260; expenses of the household, £172,500; royal bounty, alms, and special services, £13,200; and unappropriated, £8,040. The queen was farther empowered to charge the revenue on each succeeding year of her reign with pensions to the amount of £1200.|| The other members of the royal family have separate incomes; and the crown enjoys the revenues of the duchies of Cornwall and Lancaster as distinct estates.

EXERCISES.

1. How has the crown of England passed from one person to another since the time of the Norman Conquest? Show how the succession to the crown differs from other instances of feudal succession. Who succeeds when the monarch leaves two sons? When he leaves a son and a daughter? When he leaves only two daughters? When he leaves no children?

2. Explain the nature of representation. Give instances. Has the system of hereditary succession and representation been always strictly practised?

3. How has the succession been occasionally altered? Give instances. On whom was the crown settled at the Revolution? How did it come to the present reigning family? Who were passed over in this settlement besides the direct descendants of James II.? What description of persons are prohibited by an act of William III. from filling the throne? What is the nature of the Royal Marriage Act?

4. What is the nature of the maxim that the king never dies? How does parliament provide for the absence or incapacity of the monarch? Give a recent instance.

5. At what moment does the heir to the crown become monarch? What is the difference between the present and the former nature of a coronation? Explain the coronation oath. What other oaths are taken by the monarch, and on what occasion?

* 1 George III. c. 1. sect. 4.

† 17 George III. c. 21; 44 George III. c. 80; 52 George III. c. 6.

‡ 1 George IV. c. 1, sect. 3.

§ 1 William IV. c. 25, sect. 3.

|| 1 Victoria, c. 2.

6. Explain in what manner the sovereign is the source of all public acts, legislative, judicial, and executive.

7. What acts spring directly from the authority of the monarch? Tell in particular what are his powers as to the army. As to negotiations with foreign states. As to the church of England and Ireland. What is the nature of the connexion between the sovereign and the church of Scotland?

8. Explain the practical meaning and effect of the maxim that the king can do no wrong. Who are responsible for the acts done in his name? Give instances. How would the responsibility be made good? What are the king's two great councils? What is the nature of the privy council? Who form the cabinet?

9. State a still more powerful protection which the country possesses against the abuse of power. How does it operate?

10. What are the king's powers as to the meetings of parliament? How is parliament summoned, and when? Has parliament ever met of its own accord, and without royal authority?

11. How is the king the fountain of office and privilege? State an instance of a king creating a new rank. What order of precedence is he prohibited from altering?

12. What is the name and nature of the fund set apart to maintain the expenses connected with the crown? Give an outline of the changes which this fund has undergone. Explain generally the various purposes to which Queen Victoria's civil list is made applicable. What other sources of income does the crown enjoy?

SECTION III.

The House of Lords.

1. WE come now to describe the next great branch of the British constitution, the house of lords, which consists of two bodies which were originally distinct,—the lords spiritual and the lords temporal. The former at one time comprehended two archbishops, twenty-four bishops, and twenty-eight mitred abbots and priors; but at present there are only twenty-six prelates belonging to the church of England, and four, an archbishop and three bishops, who represent, in yearly rotation, the ecclesiastical establishment of Ireland. Though these lords spiritual are, in the eye of the law, a distinct estate from the lords temporal, and are so distinguished in most of our acts of parliament, yet, in practice, they are usually blended together under one denomination: they intermix in their votes, and the majority of the united body is held to be the voice of the two estates. It is not in virtue of their spiritual dignity in the church, but of the lands attached to their sees, that the bishops sit in parliament. All the members of the house of lords, at an early period, sat there by tenure of their lands. The practice of granting patents of nobility superseded that of summoning barons by tenure; but the old practice continued in the case of the bishops, who are still understood to sit as holders of baronies. The Isle of Man having been a subordinate feudatory kingdom, the Bishop of Sodor and

Man has never had a voice in parliament. The bishops not being ennobled by patent, are not called peers, but lords of parliament, and it is questioned if they are entitled to trial by the peers. Besides their right from their baronies to sit in the house of peers, the bishops, from their spiritual dignity, have seats in the convocations of the church. These assemblies were a species of parliament, meeting at the same time, and granting the supplies for the clergy as the commons did for the laity. The clergy of the two provinces, Canterbury and York, formed separate convocations, the former having, like parliament, two houses, of which the bishops formed the upper; the latter but one house.* As a matter of form the convocation is still summoned with every new parliament, and immediately prorogued. The practice of taxing the clergy separately was discontinued in 1664, and the convocation has not been permitted to sit for the transaction of business since 1717.†

2. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, including dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, who, in England, are all hereditary members of the legislature; together with sixteen elected peers who represent the nobility of Scotland, and twenty-eight who represent that of Ireland. The number of temporal lords is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown; and in the reign of Queen Anne the regal authority was exercised in creating no fewer than twelve on one occasion. In the time of George I., an attempt was made to limit the number of the peers; and, with this view, a bill was introduced into parliament, and countenanced by the ministry, the object of which was to restrain the power of the crown in issuing patents of nobility; but, after it had passed the upper house, it was so vigorously opposed in the commons that it was finally rejected.‡

3. Every peer has the right, nominally obtained by license from the king, to make another lord of parliament his proxy, to vote for him in his absence, a privilege which is not possessed by the members of the other house. No lord can hold more than two proxies; a peer cannot vote in committee, or in the trial of peers, by proxy. Each peer is also entitled, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent,—a step which, in parliamentary phrase, is usually styled a protest. All bills, likewise, that may, in their consequences, affect any of the rights of the peerage, must originate in the

* Sir E. Tomlin's Law Dictionary.

† Hallam's Constitutional History, vol. iii. p. 329.

‡ Coxe's Sir Robert Walpole, vol. i. p. 116-120.

house of lords, and cannot be changed or amended in the house of commons.

4. The house of lords is considered the highest law court in the land. In one form or other it may review the legal judgments of all the higher courts of law and equity, except the Court of Justiciary in Scotland. It is not now, however, considered that the peers themselves are the judges; for they have not, probably, in any case since the celebrated Douglas cause, acted in that capacity. They are the mere medium of obtaining the best legal opinion. In cases from the courts of England, they obtain the assistance of the judges, who attend personally;—in those from Scotland, they obtain written opinions; and judgment is suggested, and virtually pronounced, by some one of the eminent lawyers who are members of the house,—generally by the Lord Chancellor.

5. When a peer is charged with a capital crime, the constitution provides that he shall be tried only by his equals, and for this purpose the peers form themselves into a court, to which the king appoints a special president, who is called the Lord High Steward. In their decision on the guilt or innocence of the accused, they are not required like jurymen to give their testimony or judgment upon oath; but each, laying his hand on his heart, simply makes a declaration *upon honour*, and thereby acquits or condemns.

EXERCISES.

1. What bodies does the house of lords consist of? Are the lords spiritual in any way distinguished from the other peers in their votes? By what tenure are the bishops presumed to hold their seats? In what other assemblies have the bishops a right to sit? In what respect did these assemblies resemble parliament? When did they cease to transact business?

2. Of what different ranks of nobility do the temporal lords consist? How many representative peers are there from Scotland and from Ireland? Is the number of peers limited? Mention an historical incident connected with an attempt to limit the number of the peers.

3. Explain the nature of proxies. How many can be held by one lord? What privilege has a peer when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments? What bills must originate in the house of lords?

4. How does the house of lords act as a law-court? How are their judgments generally pronounced?

5. How are peers tried for capital crimes?

SECTION IV.

The House of Commons.

1. THE third estate, as it is commonly called, consists of the Commons, who are represented in parliament by a certain number of their own order. This number at present amounts to six hundred and fifty-eight, of whom five hundred are

returned by England, fifty-three by Scotland, and one hundred and five by Ireland.

2. The members of the house of commons are divided into the representatives of counties, those of towns, and those of the universities of England and Ireland, which return two members each, or six in all. The county representatives of England and Ireland are termed knights of the shire; those from the towns, citizens or burgesses. A knight of the shire must have a real estate of freehold or copyhold, to the value of £600 a-year; and a burgess must have a similar estate of £300 a-year. The eldest sons of peers, or of persons qualified to be knights of the shire, and peers of Ireland, require no property qualification; nor is any required of the representatives of the universities. In Scotland, the representatives were formerly termed commissioners, but now they are merely denominated members of parliament. They require no qualification.

3. In England, previously to the passing of the Reform Act, the right of election in counties belonged to those who possessed freeholds, or lands held directly of the king, of the annual value of forty shillings, clear of all charges. To these were added by the Reform Act,—holders of lands during their own lives or the lives of others, of the yearly value of £10; leaseholders of land of that value, whose leases were originally created for the period of sixty years; leaseholders of lands of the yearly value of £50, whose leases were originally created for not less than twenty years; and all in the personal occupancy of lands or tenements, for which they are liable to pay a yearly rent of £50.* In Ireland, the franchise was formerly in the hands of forty-shilling freeholders, but the qualification was, in 1829, raised to £10;† and by the Reform Act, those entitled to vote are freeholders and copyholders of land worth £10 a-year; and tenants on leases, originally for sixty years, of lands worth £20 a-year, or for twenty years, where the tenant has a clear yearly profit of £10.‡ In Scotland, the franchise was in the hands of freeholders, to the amount of 40s. by an old, or of £400 Scots by a later valuation. It is now transferred to proprietors of lands worth £10 annually; tenants for not less than fifty-seven years or for life, with a clear yearly profit of £10, or for not less than nineteen years, with a profit of £50; and tenants in possession, whose yearly rent is not less than £50. Those

* 2 and 3 William IV. c. 45, sect. 18, 19, & 20.

† 10 George IV. c. 8.

‡ 2 and 3 William IV. c. 88, sect. 5.

freeholders who were, or were entitled to be, on the roll at the passing of the Reform Act, retain their votes, but cannot transfer them.* The qualification of the electors of members for boroughs in England was, before the passing of the Reform Act, of a mixed and varied character, sometimes being in the hands of a very few, and in other instances consisting of nearly the whole adult male population. It generally consisted of those who were freemen of the corporation. All who were qualified so to elect at the time when the Reform Act passed, retain their right, and an equitable provision was made in favour of those who had commenced the performance of the acts necessary to qualify themselves; but a new constituency was added by that act, consisting of the occupants, as owners or tenants, of houses of the annual value of £10.† In Scotland, the members for the burghs used to be elected by the magistrates and town councils. The town constituency both of Scotland and Ireland is now of the same character as that of England,‡ with this exception, that in Scotland there are no freemen or other electors holding their right from an earlier period than the Reform Act.

4. To prevent the exercise of undue influence on the part of the government, it is provided by law, that persons having a pension under the crown during pleasure, or for any term of years, and persons connected with the management of the revenue and expenditure, or holding any new office under the crown, created since 1705, are incapable of being elected members of the house of commons. The incapacity extends likewise to clergymen and to aliens. Any member accepting an office under the crown which was in existence before the year 1705 (except a commission in the army or navy) must vacate his seat, but may be re-elected.§

5. It is an ancient privilege of the commons' house of parliament to insist that all pecuniary grants and aids shall begin with them, and receive their sanction, before they can be taken into consideration by the other house of parliament. "So reasonably jealous," says Blackstone, "are the commons of this valuable privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill; under which appellation are included all bills by which

* 2 and 3 William IV. c. 65, sect. 6, 7, 8, & 9.

† 2 and 3 William IV. c. 45, sect. 27 & 31.

‡ 2 and 3 William IV. c. 65, sect. 11, and c. 88, sect. 7.

§ 6 Anne, c. 7; 41 George III. c. 63.

money is directed to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose or in any shape whatsoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish-rates, and the like.”* When a money-bill, as such a bill is termed, is altered by the lords, the commons refuse to take it into consideration in any form, and the speaker, who is the custodier of their privileges, usually casts it over the table. It is not a long time since a bill for the protection of game was thus cast aside, because the lords had altered the amount of the penalties, which, being forfeited to the exchequer, were considered as of the nature of supplies.†

EXERCISES.

1. What is the third estate? How many members does it consist of? How many are returned for England, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively?

2. What are the different classes of members into which the house of commons is divided? How are the town and county members distinguished in England and Ireland, and what qualifications must they possess? Do these distinctions of title and the qualifications extend to Scotland?

3. In whom was the right of election in English counties before the Reform Act? What persons were added by that act? In whom was the franchise in the Irish counties before the year 1828? In whom after? In whom is it according to the Reform Act? In whom was the franchise in the counties of Scotland? Who hold it now? What change was made by the Reform Act in the borough qualification of England and Ireland? What in the burgh elections of Scotland?

4. Tell generally the classes of persons who are precluded from being members of the house of commons.

5. Explain the nature of the privilege of the house of commons as to pecuniary grants. What measures are considered money bills?

SECTION V.

Parliament collectively.

1. BESIDES the agreement of both houses of parliament, no bill can be invested with the power of law until it has received the royal assent. This assent may be given in one of two ways; first, in person, when the king comes to the house of peers, in his crown and official robes, and, sending for the commons to the bar, the titles of all the bills that have passed both branches of the legislature are read; upon which the king's answer is declared by the clerk of parliament in Norman French, a language which has been used on such occasions since the era of the Conquest. If his majesty consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, “*Le roi le veut*,” the king wills it so to be; if to a private bill, he pronounces, “*Soit*

* Blackstone, vol. i. p. 170.

† Hatsell's Precedents, vol. iii. p. 137, &c.

fait comme il est désiré," be it as it is desired. If the king refuses his assent, it is in the gentle language of "*Le roy s'aviserà*," the king will advise upon it. When a bill of supply is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed: "*Le roy remercie ses loyals subjects, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut*," the king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be. In the second place, the king may give his assent by letters patent, under the great seal, signed with his own hand, and notified in his absence to both houses assembled together in the chamber of the peers; and when the bill has received the royal assent in either of the two ways now mentioned, it is, and not before, a regular statute or act of parliament.

2. In regard to the intervals when the parliament does not sit, it is either *adjourned*, *prorogued*, or *dissolved*.

3. *Adjournment* is, strictly speaking, nothing more than the continuance of parliament from one day to another,—an act which is performed by the majority of each house every day they meet for business, and which is sometimes extended for two or three weeks at Christmas or Easter.

4. A *prorogation* is the continuance of parliament from one session to another, which is done by the royal authority, expressed either by the lord chancellor in his majesty's presence, or by commission from the crown, or sometimes by proclamation. Both houses are necessarily prorogued at the same time; and it seems now to be generally held that a prorogation must be expressly made, in order to determine the session of parliament, although formerly it was understood, that as soon as the king gave his royal assent to the bills passed by the other branches of the legislature, their sitting terminated as a matter of course. If, at the time of an actual rebellion or imminent danger of invasion, the parliament shall be prorogued or adjourned, the king is empowered to call them together by proclamation, with fourteen days' notice of the time appointed for their re-assembling.

5. Parliament may be *dissolved* in one of three ways: *First*, by the will of the king, expressed either in person or by his representatives; for as he has the sole right of convening parliament, so also it is a branch of the royal prerogative that he may, whenever he pleases, prorogue the same for a time, or put a final period to its existence. In the *second* place, parliament may be dissolved by the demise of the crown. Such dissolution always took place, in former times, immediately upon the death of the reigning sovereign; but the calling of a new parliament instantly after inauguration of the successor

being found inconvenient, and dangers being apprehended from having no parliament in existence in case of a disputed succession, it was enacted in the reigns of William and of Anne, that the parliament in being shall continue six months after the death of any king or queen, unless sooner prorogued or dissolved by the new monarch; that if the parliament be, at the time of the king's death, separated by adjournment or prorogation, it shall, notwithstanding, assemble immediately; and that, if no parliament is then in being, the members of the last parliament shall assemble, and be again a parliament. *3dly*, A dissolution may take place from the mere expiry of the term during which a parliament can legally subsist.*

6. The utmost extent of time that the commons could be allowed to sit was limited by a statute in the days of King William to *three years*;† after which, reckoning from the return of the first summons, the parliament was to have no longer continuance. But, by an act passed in the reign of George the First, this term was prolonged to *seven years*;‡ and it must appear an instance of the vast authority of the legislature, that the very same house which was chosen for three years, extended its own duration to seven. As our constitution now stands, therefore, the parliament must expire, or die a natural death as it is called, at the end of every seventh year, if not sooner dissolved by the royal prerogative. By an act of the 6th of William and Mary, it is provided that there shall not be more than three years between each parliament. It has however long been the practice for parliament to sit annually, and circumstances make that custom as useful for the monarch as for the people. The necessity of procuring the supplies which are voted from year to year, would of itself render it imperative that parliament should be annually convened. The mutiny act, too, is voted from year to year. It is this that gives the officers of the army and navy the power of military superiors. Without it, they would have no special authority to keep the troops in discipline, and would be responsible for all their acts, as if they were ordinary citizens. Thus, without the annual assembling of parliament, the army and navy could not be kept up.

* Paragraphs from 1 to 5 inclusive are abridged from Blackstone, book i. chap. 2.

† 6 and 7 William and Mary, c. 2.

‡ 1 George I. stat. 2, c. 38.

a certain space round London, a tribunal has lately been erected, termed "The Central Criminal Court."* The justices of peace, at their several sessions, have power, by the form of the commission, to try all crimes except high treason, forgery, and perjury; but it is usual for them to restrict themselves to minor offences. When a presumed criminal is apprehended on the warrant of a magistrate, he must either be committed to jail for safe custody until trial, or released on bail,—that is, on his finding security to appear on the occasion of the trial. Offences of a higher class are not bailable, except by the judges of the King's Bench;† and it may be stated as a general rule, that crimes which may be capitally punished are of this class. There are two ways of bringing a criminal to trial,—by a finding of a grand jury, in which twelve at least have agreed, or by information. No man can be tried for a capital crime, unless by the former method,—the latter is generally employed by the attorney-general in prosecutions affecting the public safety, or for penalties to the crown. The jury, who have finally to decide the question of guilt or innocence, consists of twelve, and there can be no conviction unless they are unanimous.

6. In Scotland the supreme criminal court is the High Court of Justiciary, which sits at Edinburgh, and deputes individuals of its body to hold circuits in Glasgow thrice, and in the other districts twice a-year. While in England private crimes are in general prosecuted by the parties interested, this practice, though not inconsistent with the law of Scotland, is seldom adopted; prosecutions being raised in the name of the crown by the lord-advocate. The practice of bail is nearly similar to that in England. There is no grand jury, and the ordinary jury consists of fifteen individuals, of whom a majority decides either on guilt or acquittal. The administration of criminal justice in Ireland follows the English system.

EXERCISES.

1. How does it become a matter of interest to know the manner in which the laws enacted by the legislature are put in practice?
2. What are the three features which characterize the administration of justice in England? What are the doubts as to the origin of jury trial? When do we find it in practice? What are the general objects of the system? What is the object of the writ of *habeas corpus*? What is the corresponding form in Scotland? Describe the steps by which the independence of the judges was accomplished.
3. How is it said that courts may be created? How are they constituted in practice? How are the civil courts in England divided? What was

* 4 and 5 William IV. c. 36.

† Blackstone, vol. iv. p. 299.

formerly the distinction between the common law and the equity courts, and how did the latter arise? What is the distinction now? What are the principal courts of common law? What were formerly the distinctions betwixt the King's Bench, the Common Pleas, and the Exchequer? How were processes begun in the King's Bench? Does that form still exist? Where are the decisions of these courts reviewed? What is the nature of courts of assize? What is the chief court of equity? Of how many parts does it consist? Mention two tribunals lately created. What other courts are there?

4. State a leading distinction between the administration of justice in Scotland and in England. How is the Court of Session divided? What are the powers of Sheriffs? How is civil justice administered in Ireland?

5. What is the nature of the King's Bench as a criminal tribunal? How are criminals in the country tried? How in London and its vicinity? What powers do justices of peace exercise? What takes place when a presumed criminal is apprehended? What crimes are not in general bailable? What are the ways of bringing an accused person to trial? How must capital cases be tried? Of how many does the jury consist? How many can convict?

6. What is the principal criminal court in Scotland? How does the method of prosecuting in Scotland differ from that in England? How does the jury in Scotland differ from that in England?

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